HISTORY

OF

GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL



HISTORY

GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

AND THEIR RELATION TO THE GRAMMATICAL LITERATURE IN SANSKRIT

[THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE PH. D. DEGREE OF THE MADRAS UNIVERSITY 1980.]

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Respectfully Dedicated

My Acarya

Mahamahopudhyaya Pidyavacarpati - Darana Kulunidhi Kulupsti

Prof. S. Kuppusroumi Sastriar Avl.,

M.A. J. E.S. (Retd.)



PREFACE.

The author of Tolkeppiyam may be said, for all practical purposes, to be the father of grammatical theories in Tamil Language, since the works of his teacher Agastya and of Agastya's eleven other disciples are not now available. Tamit Grammatical Theories have proceeded along two lines of development. One may be characterised as a progressive line and the other, a zigzag one. On the one hand, new theories came to be propounded and old theories came to be readjusted by grammarians, like the authors of Viracoliyam, Nannūt, Pirayokavivekam, Hakkanavilakkam, Tonnalvilakkam, etc., in the light of contemporary tendencies in literature and the inevitable changes brought on by usage. On the other hand, there appear to have heen two schools of thought of an entirely different nature which have, by their influence, dragged the progress of grammatical theories along a zigzag course. Tolkappiyanar belonged to one of them and the author of Viracoliyam represented the other. And among the later grammarians there is observable an interesting rhythmic oscillation of views between these two opposite schools. Nēminātam and Nagyūl which succeeded Vīracōliyam switched back to Tolkappiyanar's view-point, while Pirayokapivēkam which forms the next important contribution reverted to Viracolivam school. The more recent grammatical works tend. to converge towards Tolkappiyanar's school.

Probably for the first time, an attempt will now be made to present grammatical theories in Tamil Language in a historical setting and to examine how far they were influenced by the corresponding theories in Sanskrit grammatical literature. This thesis embodies the result of my independent work in the sphere of Tamil Grammatical literature. It may also incidentally enable one to appreciate the value of Tolkappiyam in any endeavour to

account for several interesting grammatical categories in Tamil from the standpoint of modern linguistic history. In its preparation for the press, I have had the advantage of using the suggestions made by the examiners who valued the thesis submitted by me.

Attention is solicited, in particular, to the following portion of my thesis, in which will be found embodied such suggestions and ideas as I may claim to be original in the sense that they were arrived at through my independent study and investigation since 1925, and that they are set forth by me for the first time, so far as I know.

- The real nature of uriccol according to Tolkappiyanar.
 Vide pp. 199 to 203.
- The final element in the indeclinable participle forms kefti, acaii, irli.
 Vide pp. 150 to 153.
- 3. How kal which was the pluralising particle only of asstinal nouns in the ancient period came to be used in the verbs of uyartinal also.

 Vide p. 164.
- 4. The possible explanation from the literary evidence of the metamorphosis of the ancient ān (the third-case-suffix) and in (the fifth-case-suffix) into āl and il respectively in the later periods.

 Vide pp. 115 and 116.
- The explanation regarding the origin of 'a' the sixthcase-suffix.
 Vide p. 114.
- The possible origin of 'a' in the participles ceylinga and ceyta.
 Vide p. 186.
- 7. History of the metamorphosis of nin (2nd personal pronoun singular base of the ancient period) to nn of the later periods from literary evidence. Vide pp. 132 and 133,
- Probable origin of the gerunds ending in pān, vān, pākkā and vākkā in the later periods.
 Vide pp. 193 and 194.
- The possibility of Tolkappiyanar having had for his model the works noted below for the sections noted against each:—

SECTION:

MODEL:

(a) 1st & 2nd sections in Eluttatikaram dealing with the initial and final vowels and consonants and the medial consonants in Tamil words.

Similar sections in Prātiśākhyas in general and Rg-Vēda Prātiśākhya in particular.

(b) 3rd section in Eluttatikāram dealing with the place of production of k, ñ, c, ñ, ţ, n, ħ, m, etc. Vide pp. 41 and 42; 61 to 64. Similar sections in Prati-

(c) Italyiyal in Collatikāram.

cular. Vide pp. 45 and 46. 1st chapter in Yaska's Nirukta. Vide pp. 197 & 198.

śākhyas in general and Tait-

tiriya Prātišākhya in parti-

(d) Uriyiyal in Collatikëram,

2nd, 3rd and 4th Chapters in Yüska's Nirukta,

Vide pp. 201 and 202.

- The probable reason why Tolkappiyanar mentions that there is no single letter having three matras. Vide pp. 34 to 36.
- Similarity between Tol. E. 83 dealing with origin of speech sounds and certain verses in Pāṇini Siksā. Vide p. 6.
- 12. The difference between Sanskrit ē, ēi, ō and āu and Tamii ē, ai, ō and au. Vide pp. 28 to 31.
- The untenability of Dr. Caldwell's Theory of Convertibility of surds and sonaets in the ancient period of Tamil Language.
 Vide pp. 54 to 58.
- 14. The untenability of Dr. Caldwell's idea regarding the origin of Sanskrit cerebrals:—One of the four points mentioned against his view is the difference in the pronunciation of Tamil f and n and Sanskrit f and n at the time of Tolkappiyanar.

Vide pp. 58 and 59,

15. The nature of aylam at the time of Tolkappiyagar.

Vide p. 65.

 A critical examination of Dr. Caldwell's remark that cases in Tamil were arranged in imitation of Sanskrit.

Vids pp. 222 and 223.

 That Tolkappiyanar suggests the definitions of payar, vinai, itaiccal and uriccal from their names; the difference in the interpretation of the satras Tol. Col. 198, 249 and 297.

Vide pp. 142, 195 and 200.

- New interpretation in the construction of words in the following three types of sentences:—
 - (i) nampi pon periyan Vide pp. 227 and 228.
 - (ii) cākāţum accu iyum Vide pp. 22 and 22,
 - (iii) alatlaykariyai ayiyum iramum.

Fide pp. 229 and 230.

- 19. New interpretation of the sūtra Tol. Col. 61 and the word vigai in Tol. Col. 112. Vide pp. 228; 142 f.n.
- Refutation that vowel consonants are not secondary sounds.

 Vide p. 16.
- 21. How the authors of Viracoliyam and Perayokavivekam did not view the Tamil grammatical theories through a proper perspective. *Vide* pp. 116; 165 to 167; 194; 204 and 205.

All the important statements and conclusions in this thesis are adequately supported by appropriate illustrations from literature and inscriptions and to some extent from the spoken language. Most of the relevant references are given in footnotes. I have made an attempt to use the decimal system in the arrangement of topics. I leave it to the readers to see how far this helps to trace the evolution of Tamil language and its grammar.

Tolkäppiyanär has not stated much about accent in Tamil. Had it resembled udätta, anudätta, svarita, and pracaya as found in Vedic language, he would surely have made mention of them. It seems to me that the later grammarians have smuggled udätta, anudätta, etc. into the Tamil grammatical system without any real support from the history of Tamil language. The accent that is used at present differs for each group of districts. For instance, in Trichinopoty vandänga (corrupted form of vantärkal) receives the accent on the first syllable, but on "i" in Madras. Hence I have not included accent as one of the topics in this thesis.

My thanks are due to Dr. R. Vaidyanathaswami Aiyar, M.A., D. Sc., Reader in Mathematics, University of Madras for having kindly translated for me into English the articles of Mr. J. Vinson found in Journal Asiatique and to Prof. D. S. Sarma, M.A. of the Presidency College, Madras for having gone through the manuscript and given some suggestions. I am deeply indebted to my Ācārya Mahāmahōpādhyāya Vidyāvācaspati Daršanakalānidhi Kulapati Prof. S. Kuppuswami Sastriyar Avl., M.A., I.E.S., for having been very kind to go through this book in the manuscript and the proof stages. I thank the Syndicate of the University of Madras for having permitted me to publish the thesis at my cost and the authorities of the Journal of Oriental Research for having readily relieved me of the burden by undertaking to publish it themselves.

Tiruvadi. }

P. S. Subrahmanya Sastri.

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Name of the Work:

	and the property of the Paris o	T. C. C. S. S. C. C. S. S. C. C.
	is given:	tion used_
TAMIL:		
GRAMMAR:		
1. Talkāppiyam*		Tol.
Eluttatikāram with the com- mentaries of Hampūraņar (Kanni- yappa Mudaliar Edn.) and Nacci- nārkkiņiyar (Damodaram Pillai Edn.	}	E.
Collatikāram with the com- mentaries of—	Do.	Col.
 tļampūraņar (Coomara- samy Naidu & Sons) 	Do.	Ilam.
 Cēṇāvaraiyar (Śaiva Sid- dhānta Publishing Society) 	. Do.	Cēgā.
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 Viracöliyam (Damodatam Pillai Edn.) 		V.
Do. Cantippatalam	Do.	VC.
Do. Vērrumaippatalam	\mathbf{Do}_{ϵ}	V.V.
Do. Tokaippatalam	Do.	V.T.

^{*} Sütras in Eluttatikāram of Tolkāppiyam are here numbered as they are found in Tolkāppiyam published in the Journal of Oriental Research and those in Collatikāram as they are found in Cēņāvaraiyam and the sūtras in Nannāl as they are found in Krishnamachariyar's Edition with Kāntikaiyarai.

Vīracēļiyam Tattītappaṭalam	$D_{D_{i}}$	V.Tat.
Do. Tätuppatalam	Do.	V.Tat.
Do. Kiriyapatappatalam	Do.	V.K.
 Nēminātam (Tamil Sangam Edp.) 	Sütra	N.N.
4. Nappūl with	Do.	Na.
(a) Mayilainātarurai (Mahā- mahōpādhyāya Dr. V. Swaminatha Aiyar's Edn.)	Do.	Na.M.
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(c) Kāntikaiyurai (Krishna- machariyar's Edn.)	Dō.	Na.K.
 Pirayökavivēkam (Ārumuka- nāvalar Edn.) 	Stanza	P.V.
6. Ilakkanavilakkanı (Damoda- ram Pillai Edn.)	Sütra	LV.
7. Hakkanakkottu (Ārumuka-, nāvalar 5rd Edn.)	Stanza	I.K.
8. Tonnalvilakkam	Şüţra	To.V.
 Tolküppiyamutarcüttiravirulti (Ārumukanāvalar 3rd Edn.) 10. Hakkaņaviļakka-c-cūrāvaļi (Ārumukanāvalar, 3rd Edn.) 	Page	T.M.V.
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xi		
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3. Pattuppöfin (Do.)	Page and line	Pattu.
4. Paripāţal (Do.)	Do.	Pari.
 Kalittekai (E. V. Anantarama- Aiyar's Edn.) 	Vol. and Do.	Ka.T.
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 Tirnvācakam (Dr. Pope's Edn.) 	Section and lin	e T.V.
 Çîvakacintâmaņi (Mahāmahō- pādhyāya Dr. V. Swaminatha Aiyar's Edn.) 		C,C,
 Perunhatai Do. 	Page and line	P.K.
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ns.	ımachariyar's Edn.)			
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24.	Vinayakapuranam		Do.	$V_\Pi.P_\tau$
25.	Tanikaippurānam		Do.	T.P.
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J.O.R.

ADDITIONAL ABBREVIATIONS:

Sanskrit	Skt.	Manuscript	Mss.
Teluga	Tel	Century	Cent.
Сапатеве	Can.	Commensury	Comm,
Malayājam	Mal.	Stanza	S.
Ceyyuliyal	Ceyyu.	Page	P.
Singular	Sing.	Line	L

xwî

No. P1. Number Plural F.n. Foot note Mod Modern Kinharar. Kińkara-wataip-Edn. Edition patalam Porul. Tirawaji. Poruļatikāram Tiruvatitolutapatalam Vararuci kārika Var. kār, Pala. Palavicittakāraņaviyal



INTRODUCTION.

It is my idea to present, in this thesis, the important grammatical theories in Tamil Language available from the written works of Tamil Grammarians and modern Tamil scholars in their historical setting and their relation to the Grammatical literature in Sanskrit and to discuss them on their merits and in reference to the evidences that may be collected from literary works and inscriptions.

The Grammarians mentioned in Tamil Language are:-

- (1) Agastya with his twelve disciples Tolkāppiyaṇār, Atankōṭṭācāṇ, Turāliṅkaṇ, Cempūṭcēy, Vaiyāpikaṇ, Vāyppiyaṇ, Paṇampāraṇ, Kalārampaṇ, Avinayaṇ, Kākkaipāṭiṇiyaṇ, Narrattaṇ and Vāmaṇaṇ who are said to have lived in the pre-Christian Era.
- (2) Iļampūraņar otherwise known as Uraiyāciriyar, probably of the 10th century, the earliest known commentator on Tolkāppiyam, the learned treatise on Tamil Grammar written by Tolkāppiyanār.
- (3) Puttamittiranār of the 11th century, the author of Vīra-cöliyam.
- (4) Peruntēvaņār of the 11th or 12th century the commentator on Viracöliyam.
- (5) Kunavirapanţitar of the 13th century, the author of Nēminātam.
 - (6) Pavananti of the 13th century, the author of Nannul,
- (7) Mayilainātar, probably of the 14th century, the earliest commentator on Nangūl.
- (8) Cēṇāvaraiyar, Teyvaccilaiyār and Naccinārkkiniyar, the well-known commentators on Tolkāppiyam (whose dates are not exactly known).
- (9) Cuppiramaniya-tiţcitar of the 17th century, the author of Pirayôkavivēkam.

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- (10) Vaittiyanāta-tēcikar of the 17th century, the author of llakkaņaviļakkam.
- (11) Cuvāmināta-tēcikar of the 17th century, the author of liakkaņakkottú.
- (12) Caûkaranamaccivâyappulavar of the 17th century, a commentator on Nannül.
- (13) The Rev. C. J. Beschi of the 18th century, the author of Toppúlvijakkam.
- (14) Civañāṇa-muṇivar of the 18th century, the author of Tolkāppiyamutarcūttiravirutti and Hakkaṇaviļakka-c-cūrāvaļi.
- (15) A few other commentators on Tolkäppiyam and Nangül.

Of them, Agastya and his disciples except Tolkappiyanar, Panampāraņār, Atanköţţācān and Avinayanār are known to us only from stray references found in the works of others. Panampāranār has written the pāyiram or the introductory stanza to Tolkäppiyam, There, it is mentioned, that Tolkäppiyam was written by Tolkappiyanar after a careful study of the earlier treatises on Tamil grammar, on the model of Aindra-Vyakarana, dealing with the Tamil Language current both in literature and usage from Tirupati on the north to Cape Comoria on the south; and that it was first read in the court of a Pantiyan king for recognition before the grammarian Atanköttäcän. Mayilainātar, in his commentary on Nannūl, mentions that a treatise on Grammar was written by Avinayanar and it was commented upon by Iraca-p-pavittira-p-pallavataraiyan. But neither the treatise nor the commentary is available at present. The earliest treatise on Grammar that is available at present is only Tolkāppiyam. The later treatises are Viracöliyam, Nannūl, Ilakkanavilakkam, Pirayökavivěkam, Ilakkanakkottů, Tonnúlvilakkam, Tolkäppiyamotareüttiravirutti and Hakkaŋavilakka-c-cürävali.

The author of Viracoliyam improves upon Tolkappiyam and mentions a few points with reference to the literature of his time which are not found in it. The author of Nannal has incorporated almost all those contained in Tolkappiyam and Viracoliyam omitting a few, added a few points more and has given

expression to them as concisely as possible. In doing so he has not generally followed the important principle observed by Tolkäppiyanär that one sütra should have only one vidhäya or logical predicate with reference to one uddëšya or logical subject and this mars the beauty of his work. The author of Ilakkanavijakkam, after making a critical study of Tolkäppiyam and Nannül, has selected sütras from them both, given most of them as they are found there and modified the rest a tittle. Hence he may be treated more as a commentator on Tolkäppiyam and Nannül than an author of a separate treatise. Pirayökavivēkam is a treatise by itself where the author imports the technical expressions and theories of Sanskrit Grammar. The author of llakkanakkottu summarises in a tew sütras the ideas contained in the works of his predecessors. Hence he may be taken as an author of a compendium rather than an independent work.

The author of Tonnulvilakkam incorporates most of the sutras found in Nannul, but modifies them wherever he differs from it. But in commentary on the same he has made very good use of the literature available to him.

Tolkāppiyamutarcūttiravirutti is an elaborate discussion on the first sūtra of Eluttatikāram of Tolkāppiyam, where the author avails himself of the opportunity to discuss the important views on Phonology and Accidence expressed by Tolkāppiyanār, by his commentators Uraiyāciriyar, Cēnāvaraiyar and Naccinārkkiniyar, and the author of Nannūl, with the aid of his ripe knowledge both of Tamil and Sanskrit.

Hakkaṇavilakkaccuṛāvaļi is only a criticism on the views of the author of Hakkaṇavilakkam where he differs from the author of Nannūl.

I may also mention here that Tolkäppiyanar has worked out a beautiful Tamil Grammar on the models of Sanskrit Prätisäkhyas, Yäska's Nirukta, Pänini's Šikṣā and Pāṇini's Grammar or that of his predecessors without doing the least violence to the genius of the Tamil Language. It is also said by Panampāranār that he based his work on Aindra-Vyākarana; but tradition says that all the eight treatises on Sanskrit Grammar including Aindra

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were ousted by Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyi. The only reference which connects Indra with Sanskrit Grammar is found in Patañjali's Mahābhāṣya where it is said that he studied Sanskrit Grammar word by word under Bṛhaspati for 1000 celestial years and was not able to complete it.¹

There is striking correspondence between Katantra and Tolkäppiyam in respect of arrangement of topics and use of technical terms such as vibhakti = vērrumai, dīrgha = neţil, hrasva = huril etc. From this Dr. Burnell2 seems to infer that Tolkappiyanār followed Kâtantra and Prātiśākhyas which, according to him, represented the Aindra School, instead of Pāṇini's Grammar and also conjectures that Tolkappiyam may be assigned to the 8th century after Christ.3 But from inscriptional and other evidences it is generally believed that the works of Sangam period could not have been produced later than 5th century A. D. and some of them like Purananurii and Patieruppattu could be taken to the beginning of the Christian Era, and Tolkappiyam is earlier than all of them. Consistently with this widely prevalent belief, it could hardly be held that Tolkappiyanar had for his model the Katantra Grammar which is said to belong to the first century after Christ.

An attempt is made in this thesis to show that Tolkappiyanar adapted not only the Sanskrit Grammatical terms and the arrangement, but also many of the Sanskrit grammatical theories. For instance, his account of the origin of speech-sounds and the function of case-suffixes is a close reproduction of what is found in old Sanskrit Grammars; while, however, in the treatment of compounds, and the initial and the final sounds of words, he appears to have made certain alterations and adaptations to suit the requirements of Tamil language. On the other hand, the authors of Viracoliyam and Pirayōkavivēkam have imitated

Byhaspatch Indrāya divyam varşa-sahasram pratipadoktānām šabdānām šabda-pārāyaņam provāca, nāntam jagāma.

^{2,} B. A. S. p. 8.

^{3.} B. A. S. p. 55 f.n.

[#] B. S. G. p. 83.

Pāṇini's Grammar in declension, conjugation and word-formation to such an extent that they have completely distorted the perspective through which the linguistic phenomena of the Tamil Language should be analysed and evaluated. They have also incorporated in their works a close translation of Vararuci's Kārikās on Sanskrit compounds.

It will also be seen from the following pages that the other grammarians like the authors of Nannūl and Ilakkanaviļakkam have, in general, followed Tolkāppiyanār, though, here and there as in the case of accent and alapetai, they agree with the author of Viracoliyam.

For the sake of convenience, I have divided, in this work the period from the Pre-Christian Era to the present day into three:—Ancient, Medieval and Modern, Ancient representing the period extending from the Pre-Christian Era to the 5th century A.D. (i.e.) the end of Sangam Period, Medieval, the period from the 6th century A.D. to the 14th century A.D. and Modern, the period from the 15th century A.D. upto the present day.

SPEECH-SOUNDS.

I. How speech-sounds are produced:—Tolkappiyanar says in the satra—

Unti mutalā muntn-vaļi töngi-t
Talaiyinu miţagginu nenciņu uilaii-p
Pallu m-itaļu nāvu mūkkum
Angamu m-uļappaţa v-eņungai nilaiyān
Uguppug g-amaiya negippaţa nāţi
Ellā v-vļuttuā colluk kālai-p
Pigappi p-ūkkam vēgu-vē g-iyala
Tigappaṭa-t teriyaŭ kāţci y-ūna, (Tol. E. 83.)

that air which starts from navel comes out as different speechsounds by passing through the eight parts—chest, neck, head, hard palate, teeth, tongue, lips and nose, and undergoing different modifications therein. This is more or less the translation of the following Kārikās of Pāṇini's Śikṣā:—

Mārutastūrasi caran mandrah janayati ... svaram |
Kanthe mādhyaudinayugam ...
Tāram tārtīyasavanam širsaņyam jāgatānugam |
Sodīrno mārdīnyabhihato vaktram-āpadya mārutah |
Varnāh janayatē ...
Astān sthānāni varnānām urah kanthah širas-tathā |

Aştān sthānāni varņānām uraņ kaņļkah stras-tathā Jihvānnīlanca dantāšca nāsikāsthāu ca tālu ca ||

It may be noted here that jihvāmūlam is translated as "nā" or tongue, while it really means the root of the tongue.

Besides it is said in Pāṇini's Śikṣā that 'h', when it is in company with any one of the five pasals and four semi-vowels, is 'chest-sound' but that, when it is alone, it is guttural.

Cf. Hakāram pañcamairyuktam antasthābhiśca saṃyutam | Urasyam tam vijānīyāt kaṇṭhyam āhurasaṃyutam | (P. S. 16.) Though Tolkāppiyaṇār has not stated ' h' among Tamil sounds, he has mentioned the chest as one of the organs of speech probably because the air which finally comes out as speech-sound passes through it.

But the other grammarians from llampuranar downwards have not correctly understood the significance of the mention of chest, neck and head. llampuranar says in his commentary on the sutra—

Mellelut t-ārum pirappi y-ākkum Colliya paļļi nilatyina v-āyinum Mūkkin vaļi-y-ieni yāppura-t tourum. (Tol. E. 100.)

where it is said that the nasals have for their organ of production, nose also besides their respective organs of production, that the voiceless consonants are produced by talai-vali or the air when it passes through the head, and that the semi-vowels are produced by mitarra-vali or the air when it passes through the neck. This statement of his is probably due to the fact that, of the eight organs mentioned by Tolkappiyanar in Tol. E. 83, all but chest, neck and head have been mentioned as organs of production in sutras 84 to 100. But he does not seem to have noted that neach or chest mentioned in Tol. E. 83 is left out.

The author of Viracoliyam mentions the same eight organs as Tolkappiyanar, but does not say anything as Ilampuranar does about the places where vallinam, mellinam and itaiyinam are produced. But his commentator Peruntevanar says that the voiceless consonants are produced at the chest, uylam at the head, yowels and semi-vowels at the neck and the nasals at the nose.

Unti-mutal-eluk kärru-p-pirant-ura muñ-ciramum Pantamali-kan tamu-mükkum-ur-r-annam pul-l-utan e Muntum-ital-nā maļi-y-uruppāku muyatti y-iy-āl Vantu-nikaļu m-eluttentu-collurar zāņutalē. (V. C. 6.)

Inaggul, urattai vallinamum, cirattai üytamum, kanţattai uyirum iţaiyinamum, mūkhai mellinamum, peruntum-ena-kkeika. (V. C. 6, Comm.)

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The author of Nangul closely follows Peruntevanar in all respects.¹

The author of Hakkanavilakkam improves upon Tol, E. 83 by adding that the sound has emanated from *udāna* which is made to rise by the will of the person.² This clearly shows that he has in his mind the Kārikā—

Atmā buddhyā sametyārthān mano yunkte virukṣayā |
Manaḥ kāyāgnim āhanti sa prerayati mārutam ||
which precedes 'Mārutastūrasi caran etc.' in Pāṇini's Sikṣā, and
agrees with Ilampūraṇar that valliṇam is produced at the head,
melliṇam at the nose and iṭaiyiṇam at the neck¹ and differs
from Naṇṇūlār in saying that āytam is produced at the chest¹
instead of at the head. This is perhaps due to his having known
that the Sanskrit 'h' is produced at the chest when it is in company with any one of the five nasals and semi-vowels; but since
dytam must invariably be followed by a voiceless consonant, it
is more appropriate to say that it is produced in places just near
the places of production of the respective voiceless consonants.
This point will be dealt with at great length in 1.55.

- 1. Nigai-y-uyir muyagciyi n-ulvali turappa
 Elum-anu-t tiral-urah kanta m-ucci
 Mükkuf n-ital-ula-p pat-t-ana-t tolitin
 Venuz n-eluttaii p-äy-varat pinappi. (Na. 74.)
 Avali.
 Āvi y-itaimai yitu-mita n-äkum
 Mēvu meymai-mūk ku-uram-penum nanmai. (Na. 75.)
 Āyta-k k-itan-talai y-ankā muyagci
 Cārpelut t-ēnanun tam-muta t-anaiya. (Na. 87.)
- Uyir-ulap putünani näta m-ucci
 Majarura mükkur r-ital-nä-p pul-l-ana-t
 Tutaintu pinna r-avarratu vinaijän
 Viju-vi r-eluttali y-äy-varat pirappi. (I, V, 9.)
- A-v-vali y-āvi y-iţai-miţa ţ-ucci
 Vanmai menmai-muk k-icaiyiţ ţonţum. ([, V, 10.)]
- Āyta-neñ cecai-yi ŋ-ankān t-iyatuñ
 Căr pelut t-ēŋa-v-un tam-muta t-aŋaiya. (f. V. 13.)

C. J. Beschi follows Nappūlār in total.

From all this it is evident that the Tamil Grammarians with the exception of Tolkåppiyanår have not recognised the true distinction between the äbhyantara-prayatna and the båhya-prayatna mentioned by Pāṇini and other Sanskrit Grammarians. They have not also recognised that the classification of vowels, explosives, semi-vowels and fricatives is due to their distinction in ābhyantara-prayatna and that the classification into voiceless and voiced is due to the difference in the condition of the vocal chords and certain concomitant factors which come under bāhya-prayatna².

It may be useful to note in this connection that the tension of the vocal chords and the accompanying vibration and musical clang or voice correspond to the bāhya-prayatnas of the voiced consonants, viz., saṃmāra, nāda and ghāṣa, while the flaccid condition of the vocal chords and the accompanying non-vibration and breath correspond to the bāhya-prayatnas of the voiceless consonants, viz., vivāra, śvāsa and aghāṣa.

At the end of the third section in Eluttatikāram, Tolkāppiyaṇār states in two sūtras—

Ellä v-elutium velippala-k kilantu
Colliya palli y-elutaru valiyir
Pirappotu vituvali y-uralcci vāra-t
Takattelu vali-y-icai y-arizapa nāți
Aļapir kōļa l-antaņar maraittē. (Tol. E. 102.)
Astiva ņuvalā t-eluniu-purat t-icaikku
Meyteri vali-y-icai y-aļavu-nuvan ricinē.

(ibid. 103.)

that the theory of speech-sounds and modifications which sound undergoes within the body may be learnt from the scriptures of

T. V. J. Comm.

Samerie kanthe nādah kriyatē. (Tai. P. II. 4.)
 Virtē šnāsah. (Tai. P. II. 5.)

^{...}Kanthasya khë virttë sangritë vë ëpadyatë gväsatëm nëdatëm vë. (R. V. P. 13, 1.)

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the Brahmins and that he has dealt with here only the articulated speech-sounds that come out of the mouth. Here it is evident that he refers to the four phases of speech-sound, pard, pasyanti, madhyamā and vaikharī described in Sanskrit Grammar, parā, heing that phase of the sabda-brahman, the undifferentiated primordial sound manifested at mūlūdhūra or sacral plexus, pasyantī being that phase which is manifested at the navel and which is cognisible to Yōgins, madhyamā being that phase which is manifested at the heart and vaikharī being that phase which is manifested out of the vocal organs as the articulated sound. These four phases are clearly suggested by the following Rk mentioned by Pataūjali in the first ūhnīka of his Mahābhāṣya:—

Catvāri vākparimitā padāni Tāni vidur brākmaņā yē mantsiņaķ | Gukā trīņi nihitā nēngayanti Turīyam vācē manusyā vadanti ||

(M. B. i. 3, 24 and 25.)

Hence the three sūtras, Tol. E. 83, 102 and 103 clearly show that Tolkāppiyaṇār had studied Sanskrit Śikṣā, Prātiśākhyas and grammar, and had adopted in his work those points which would suit Tamil Language.

- 1.2. Classification:—Speech-sounds are first classified into primary and secondary in almost all the treatises on Tamil Grammar. They are respectively called mutal-elutivi and carpelutivi by Nappūlar and his successors. The name carpelutivi may have been suggested to them by the expression 'carntuvaran marapit' in the first sūtra in Elutiatikāram of Tolkāppiyam.
- 1.21. Primary sounds: 1.211. Definition:—Primary sounds are those which have only one definite place of production in vocal organs for each of them. That this is the idea of

Uyiru m-uţampum-ā muppatu mutalē, (Na. 59.)

U pirmey üştam uyiralağu orrulağu
 A :- kiya i-u ai-au mu :- kün
 Tani-nilai pattuñ cărpelut t-ākum. (Na. 60.)
 Moli-k-hū ranam-ā nūta-hū riya-v-oli
 Eluttatu mutal-cūr p-ena-tru vahaittē. (I. V. 3.)

Tolkäppiyanär is inferred from his statement that secondary sounds are found only in the company of primary sounds and cannot have a separate place of production.¹

1.212. Number of primary sounds:—The primary sounds are, in the opinion of Tolkäppiyanär, thirty? in number consisting of 12 vowels3 and 18 consonants4. The author of Viracoliyam mentions āytam between vowels and consonants and thence according to him the primary sounds seem to be thirty-one. The author of Něminětam follows him in this point. But all the other grammarians repeat the opinion of Toikāppiyanār.

It seems to me that the authors of Viracoliyam and Neminatam have gone wrong in having included aytam among primary sounds, since its pronunciation varies according to the consonant that succeeds it. This point will be dealt with at greater length in 1.55.

1.213. Classification of primary sounds:—Primary sounds are classified into vowels and consonants, of which the vowels are produced by opening the mouth, which is seen from the

- Cārntu varin -allaju tamakkiyal-pilu-v-eno-t
 Tērntu-vēļi-p patutta v-ēņzi māngun
 Tattaā cārpir pigappošu cinami
 Otta kātciyir gammiyal p-iyalum, (Tol. E. 101.)
- Eluttena-p-potupa
 Akara-mutat
 Nakara vituvāy muppa i tenpa
 Cārntu-maray marapin māpralais kataiyē. (ibid. 1.)
- Ankāra v-igunāpop
 Panņā r-eļuttu menņir-eņa maļipa. (ibid. 8.)
- Nakara viţuvöy-p Patiyen n-elattu mey-y-ena molipa. (ibid. 9.)
- Arinta-v-eluttam-muy panyairanţāvi-ko ţ-ān-kam-muy Piranta-patineţţu mey-naţu-v-āytam peyarttiţai-y-ām Muyintana-yam-muta t-āyu iranana namana-v-eyru Cerintana-metlinan ceppāta-vallinan temoţiye, (V. C. 1.)
- 6. Āvi y-akara-muta l-āţiranţām-āţtam-iţui Mēvin kakara-mutaŋ meykal-ā—mūvāţun Kannu muţaimaiyāţ kāţţiya-mup pattoru Nannumutai vaippāku naŋku. (N. N. E. 1.)

expression 'ankantu iyalum' in Toi. E. 85 and avarroranna in Tol. E. 86, etc. The vowels and the consonants will be dealt with in detail after secondary sounds are defined and numbered (i.e.) in 1.3 and 1.4.

1.22. Secondary sounds: 1.221. Definition:—Secondary sounds are those which depend for their pronunciation upon the preceding or succeeding consonants. This is evident from Tolkäppiyanär's statement 'cārnti varin allati tamakki iyalpila' in Tol. E, 101.

But Nannular does not seem to have understood the full significance of this definition of Tolkäppiyanär. He seems to have mistaken kurriyal-ikaram and kurriyal-ukaram for 'i' and 'u' shortened to half a māirā each. According to Tolkāppiyanār the places of production of kurriyalikaram and kurriyal-ukaram are not always the same as those for 'i' and 'u', but change according to the preceding consonant.

Mayilainātar says that cārpeļuttū is that which is other than mutal-elettū and which is used along with another sound.\(^1\) An old commentator on Nannūl says that cārpeļuttū is one which has undergone modification by one part of it combining with another part or by being preceded or succeeded by another sound.\(^2\)

The author of Ilakkaṇa-vilakkam agrees with Mayilainātar.

Cankara-namaceivāyar says that cārpeļuttū is that which is used only in combination as vowel-consonant, which comes in company of mutal-eluttū as āytam or mutal-eluttū modified as the rest. He adds that it may also be defined as a sound found only in words.

Civañana-munivar, on the other hand, agrees with Tolkanpiyanar and elaborately criticises in his Tolkappiya-mutarcuttira-

Mutaleļutiān-taņmai avattith-iņmaivāņum, cārpit-topputalāņum ippattum cārpākavā koļļavēņium-enpatū. (Na. 59, M.)

Tommoţu tūm cārntum, iţam cārntum, paŢţukkāţū cārntum, vikārattāl parataliņ, (Na. p. 40- f.a.)

^{3.} Uyirmey uyirum meyyum küşi-p-piyattalüyum, üytam . . . avaşı işsiyê cürntu-varutalüyum eysiya tattamutaleluttiş-viripu

virutti, the definition given by the commentators of Nannul and the author of Hakkana-vilakkam.

1.222. Number of secondary sounds:—The secondary sounds are, in the opinion of Tolkäppiyanär, three in number consisting of kurriyal-ikaram (roughly translated as shortened 'i'), kurriyal-ukaram (roughly translated as shortened 'u'), and äylam¹, and each of them has half a mäträ for its quantity.² Ilampüranar mentions under Tol. E. 1, that they are 226 in number consisting of kurriyal-ikaram, kurriyal-ukaram and äylam, 7 nyir-alapelai and 216 vowel-consonants. According to the author of Viracöliyam they are 11 in number consisting of 7 alapelai (one corresponding to each of 7 long vowels), kurriyal-ikaram, kurriyal-ukaram, shortened 'ai' and shortened 'au'.¹ The author of Něminätam mentions both in his text and commentary 244 secondary sounds consisting of 7 uyir-alapelai, kurriyal-ikaram, kurriyal-ukaram, shortened 'ai', shortened 'au'. shortened 'au'.

viküyattür pigattalüğum cürpeluttüyinavüka-k-kolka . . . orumoliyai-c-cürntu varutali tamakk-ilakkanam-ükavutaimaiyiç cürpeluttüyina-v-ena-k-k**ü**talum-üm-cy ka.

(Na. 60, C.)

1. Apaitam,

Kurriya (-ikaram kurriya (-ukaram Aytam-enga

Muppar pulliya metatid r-anna. (Tol. E. 2.)

- 2. Avviya-gilaiyu m-enai münye, (ibid, 12.)
- 3. Iquti-meyntekiya vārāril-aintu kufiņeţil-tl
 Peruvariyāņeţu nīrmai-yaļapu piņainta-narkham
 Aquoagu-vallagu mellot tum-ām-vaņmai mēl-ukaram
 Uzuvatu-naiyum toţarmoli-p-piņņu netif-piņņumē, (V. C. 2.)
 Akaram-vakaratti pāţiyaint-auvām yakarattiņāţū
 Akaram-iyaintaiya tākum ā tā viņā-v-antam-ām
 Ehara-okara-mey yif-puļļi-mēvum a-i-u-c-cuţţūm
 Ikarai-kuţuki varuh-kuzţuharam-pin ya-v-voriņē, (ibid. 3.)
 Kuzţeļuttongon v-arai-yākum-ai-au v-iranţuncţil
 Orgeļuttāŋtam i-u-v-arai-nūngala p-ānkuyirmeş
 Maţţeļuttaŋţuyir māttirai-y-è-peţu mannukinga
 Ocyeluttinpin n-uyir-varin-ēţu m-oli-v-laivē. (ibid. 5.)

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2)6 vowel-consonants (ka, $k\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}$, etc.), 6 shortened voiceless consonants, 6 nasals, and the shortened 'y', 'l', 'v', 'l' and &1.

Nannülär mentions 369 secondary sounds consisting of 216 vowel-consonants, 8 maggiylam, 21 myir-alapetai. 42 oggalapetai, 37 haggiyla-ikaram, 36 haggiyla-nkaram, 3 shortened 'ai', 1 shortened 'au', 3 shortened 'm' and 2 shortened äytam. He explains them thus:—Since there are 12 vowels and 18 consonants, the number of vowel-consonants is $18 \times 12 = 216.^{\circ}$ Since there are 6 voiceless consonants which can follow äytam, since äytam is substituted in sandhi for consonants as in av + katiya = akatiya and since it is inserted in certain words for the sake of metre as in coyraatú (for ceyvatú), the number of maggāytam is 6 + 2 = 8.4 Since alapetai can come at the beginning, the middle and the end of words and since there are seven long vowels, the number of myir-alapetai is $7 \times 3 = 21^{\circ}$.

- Önkuyiska ţ-arrinuā l-ēri y-uyirmey-y-āy
 Āhhiru nāgyorupat tāgāhum— pāhhugaijā
 Valloggu metiaggu varkka m-atupetaikat
 Colloggi nāṭṭa-t tahum. (N. N. E. 3.)
 Taṭarneṭiŋ kāṭaunai mēl-uhuram ya-p-pin
 Paṭaiya varum-ikar m-angi—maṭu-nallāy
 Mummai-y-iṭat t-ai-y-au-v-uh hungumun norgunatēl
 Commai-y-uyi x-ēruā corintū. (ibid. 4.)
- 2. Uyirmev y-irattu-nür vettuna r-üytam Ettuni r-afapelin müngen v-alapetai Ārē lu - ku m-immun paņēl Ukara m-drā v-aikān müngē Aukā n-ongē ma , kān mūngē Āyta m-iranţatu cārpelat t-uyu-viri Ongoli munaür velupā n-eupa. (Na. 61.)
- Pulli-vet tra-v-otu mun-y-uru v-āki-y-um Ēņai y-uyir o turuvu tirintum Uyir-aļu vāy-atan vativelit tiruvuyin Peparatu m-ottu-mun n-āy-varu m-uyirmey. (ibid. 89.)
- Kuriyatan munna r-āyta-p pulli .
 Uyirata punaruta-val lāyan micaistā. (ibid. 90.)
- Icai-keţiŋ moţi-muta l-iţai-kaţai nilni-neţil
 Aţapelu m-evarraver r-iŋa-k-kuril kuri-y-8. (ibid. 91.)

Since the 11 sounds \vec{n} , \vec{r} , come as orgalapetai after one short vowel or two short vowels, in the middle of words in the case of all and at the end in the case of all except &, the number of orgalabetai is $11 \times 4 - 2 = 42^{\circ}$. Since kurriyal-ikaram takes the place of kurriyal-ukaram when the latter is followed by 'y' in sandhi and there are 36 kurriyalukaram and the 'i' in the particle 'wiyd' in such words as kënmiya is kurriyal-ikaram, its number is $36 + 1 = 37^2$. Since karriyal-ukaram may be preceded by one of the 7 long vowels alone, two or more vowels except 'au' (which are therefore 11 in number), dytam, 6 voiceless consonants, 6 nasals and all semivowels except 'v' (which are therefore 5 in number), its number is $7+11+1+6+6+5=36^3$. Since aikāra-k-hurukham may be found at the beginning, the middle and the end of words, its number is 34. Since aukēra-k-kurukkam can be had only at the beginning of words, its number is only 13. Since makara-khugukkam can be had after y and y and before v, as in maruyin, pōum, tarum-valevan, its number is 36. Since aytam may be substituted for l or l'in sandhi, as in al+tinai=akrinai and mud+titu=mukittu and its matra is \ (according to him), the number of ayta-k-kurukkam is 27.

Naccinārkkiniyar repeats under Tol. E. I the opinion of Ilampūraņar,

The author of Ilakkaṇa-vi[akkam mentions that the secondary sounds are 240 in number consisting of knggiyal-ikaram, knggiyal-

Na-ña-ņa na-ma-ņa va-ya-la-ţa v-āytam
 Aţapāia kuril-iņai kurir-hīţ-iţai-keţai
 Mikalā y-ararrin kuri-y-ām vērē. (Ibid. 92.)

Yakaram yara-k-kuya ţ-n-ţ-tiri y-tkaramum Acai-c-col miyā-w-i n-skaram-tin kuy/ya. (Ibid. 93.)

Neţilō ţ-āyta m-ngir-vali meli-y-iţa:
 Toţur-moli y-iţuti vanmai-y-ā r-uharam
 A -- kum piţamēl toţura-u-um peţum-z. (Ibid 94.)

^{4 &}amp; 5. Tay-eut t-afapoli y-ai-m-mū vaļi-p-um Nai-y-a m-au-v-u mutal-ay yūkum. (1516, 95.)

^{6.} Na-ya-munyum va : Aün micaiyu-ma-k kuyukum. (Ibid. 96.)

^{7.} La-la-v-ir v-iyaipinā m-āyta m-a : kum. (1bid. 97.)

ukaram, äytam, 216 uyirmey, 7 uyir-alapetai, 11 orralapetai, shortened 'ai' and shortened 'au' and makara-k-kurukkam and condemns Nagnūlār and says that äytam never reduces itself to \(\) of a mātrā, and that other sounds like nyir-alapetai, etc., except uyir-mey remain the same, whether they stand at the beginning, the middle or the end of words and that therefore the number 369 mentioned by Nagnūlār cannot stand!

Civañaṇa-muṇivar, on the other hand, says that there is no purpose served by taking wyirmey as cārfeluttu, that wyirula-peṭai is only a short vowel added to the previous long vowel to lengthen its mātrā, that oṛṛalapeṭai is only a consonant that is added for the sake of lengthening the mātrā, and shortened 'ai' shortened 'an' and makara-k-kuṛukkam are produced at the same part of the vocal organs as 'ai', 'au' and 'm' respectively, but vary only in their quantity. Besides one cannot say that kuṛṛiyal-ikaram and kuṛṛiyal-ukaram are shortened 'i' and shortened 'u' in the same way as 'shortened 'ai' and shortened 'an'. For, had it been the opinion of Tolkāppiyaṇār, he would have designated them as kuṛṛikaram and kuṛṛikaram and not as kuṛriyal-ikaram and kuṛṛiyal-ukaram, and would not have indicated a separate symbol for them as he now does in Tol. E. 2.2

I totally agree with Civañaṇa-muṇivar. I may add that the definition given to cărpeluttii by the commentators on Naṇṇūl to include vowel-consonants does not at all hold good. (Cf. 1.221. supra.) They say 'tammoții tâm cărniații'. In the vowel-consonant 'ku', we may say that 'k' is in the company

^{1.} Āyata-k-kurukkam-opru iņreņatum....uņirmey-y-oļittū ēņaiyav-ellām itasērrumaiyāņ-aņri eļuttu-vērrumaiyāņ ahhaņam palkāmaiyir cārpeļuttu munuārrarupattan patām eņral nirampātā.

^{2.} Iņi immānīumē-y-aņīi uņirmey mutaliyavarīuijuā cārpeļutteņ pārum uļarālā v-eņiņ,— ... uņir-mey en pataņai. ... orīumainayam-paīrī onīn enpataņāl oru papaņ-iņmaijāņum. ... aļapēļai
cār peļutteņa vērākāmai muņņar-k-kāţļappatīntākalāņum, aikāra-kkurukha mutalijuņa. ... vērēļuttenā-p-paţā-v-ākalāņum vaļanātārum.
... uņir-mey, uņir-aļapēļai, aikāra-k-kurukkam mutaliņa eļuttukhaļai-eerītā tirintamai-parīti vēreļutteņa jānţan coļļāmaijāņum atu poruntātā
ena maņakka. (T. M. V. 29—30),

of 'a' or 'a' is in the company of 'k'. Hence either of the two may be said to be carpelutti with respect to the other. How can the whole be called carpelutta? Besides it may be noted here that in many places the sounds 'ka', 'ca', 'ta', etc. are used to represent only the consonantal sound 'h', 'a', 'l', etc. to enable the hearer to understand what consonant is pronounced and Tolkappiyanar himself says so in the satra Meyyi n-iyakka m-akaramotu civanum. E. 46. He has also used the symbols ka'(s), ca'(s), etc. to represent k'(s), c'(s), etc.; besides for the purpose of representing the sounds ' kā', ' kī', ' kī', etc., the symbols denoting (d', 'i', 'i') etc. are added to the symbol denoting 'ka' and not to the symbol denoting 'k'. These three points, it seems to me, may have led the author of Něminātam, Nagpūlār and others to mistake nyirmey for a unitary sound. As regards ajapetai and shortened tai ', Tolkappiyanar himself has mentioned them in the sutras.

> Mūvaļa p-icaitta l-ör-eļut t-iņrē, (Tol. E. 5.) Nītļam vēņti p-a-v-v-aļa p-utaiya Kūtti y-eļūnta l-eņmaņār pulavar. (ibid. 6.)

and

Ör-afa p-āku nī-iţanumā r-uņţē Tēruŭ kālai moļi-vayi n-āpa. (ibid. 57.)

but has not included them among secondary sounds.

1.223. Classification of secondary sounds:—The secondary sounds are not classified by Tolkappiyanar either as vowels or as consonants, or as neither. But according to Nannular and the later grammarians except Civañana-munivar they may be classified into vowel secondary sounds, consonant secondary sounds and secondary sounds that are neither. This point will be dealt with at greater length in 1.348, 1.3481, 1.3482, 1.3483, 1.3484, 1.47 & 1.5.

Cf. Vallejnt t-ep pa ka-ca-ba ta-pa-ja. (Tol. E. 19.)
 Mellejat t-ep pa ha-ha-na na-na-na. (Ibid. 20.)
 Itai-y-eint t-ep pa ya-ra-la va-la-la. (Ibid. 21.)

18 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

1.3. VOWELS: 1.31. CLASSIFICATION.

1.311. Ancient period:—(Tolkäppiyanär says that) there are 12 yowels from 'a' to 'au' which may be classified thus:

Primary vowels: $\begin{cases} \text{Short: } a, i, n, c & o \\ \text{Long: } \tilde{a}, \tilde{i}, \tilde{u}, \tilde{c} & \delta \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} \text{Diphthongs}^{\dagger} & \text{at and } an \end{cases}$

Secondary vowels; i (shortened i) and \hat{n} (shortened u).

- 1.312. Medieval period:—The primary vowels are the same as those in the ancient period; but the secondary vowels are 'i', 'ii', 'ai' (shortened ai) and 'ai' (shortened an) and nyiralapetai, $\bar{a}a$, $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}n$, $\bar{e}e$, aii, bo and ann.
- 1.313. Modern period:—According to llakkana-vilakkam and Toppül-vilakkam the primary vowels are the same as those of the ancient period and the secondary ones as those of the medieval period; but according to Civañana-munivar's Tolkappiya-mutar-cüttira-virutti both the primary and the secondary vowels are the same as those of the ancient period.

N.B.—The parallelism between

' Aukāra v-iruvāy-þ pannir-elattum uyir-ena molipa'. (Tol. E. 8.)

and

Akārādyāķ svarā jūēyāķ
 aukārāntāķ caturdaša'. (B. N. p. 170, 8.)

is worth noting; but we cannot say definitely whether the extant text of Natya Sastra is anterior or posterior to Tolkappiyam.

Akara ikara m-aikāra m-āknon. (Tol. E. S4.) Akara akara m-aukāra m-āknov. (Ibid. 55.)

He does not mention the name diphthongs, but suggests it in the satras

^{2.} He does not mention 'i' and 'i' as vowels, though, for practical purposes, they may be taken as such.

- 1.32. Quantity of vowels:—Short vowels have one mātrā,¹ long vowels and diphthongs two² and secondary vowels half³. The shortened 'ai' and the shortened 'au' have one mātrā according to Tolkāppiyaṇār⁴ and one and a half according to Peruntēvaṇār² and Kuṇavīra-paṇṭitar⁶; but only one mātrā according to Naṇṇūlār² and the later grammarians.²
- 1.33. Quality of vowels:—All vowels are open sounds, as is seen from the statement 'ankdottyalum' in the sûtra

'Avaryul
A ā ā-y-iraṇ ţ-ankāṇtiyalum' (Tol. E. %6) and
'avaryōraṇṇa' in the sūtra,
I-ī e-ē ai-y-eṇa v-icaikkum
A-p-pā I-aintu m-avaryō r-aṇṇa.
Avaitām,

An-pan mutanā viļimp-ura l-utaiya.' (ibid. 86.) and 'italhuvintiyalum' in the sūtra .

1.	Aportal
	Aiu
	E o enna massell tegintum
	Orala p-icaikkun kurpelut t-en pa. (Tol. E. 3.)
2.	Āīā
	$ar{E}$ ai
	0 ан ефти т-арра 1-гдин
	Īraļa p-ienikku neștelus s-enpa. (Ibid. 4.)
3.	Aveim vilaiņu m-šņai mūnyē. (Ibid. 12.)
2	Orala paku m-itanum-d r-unte
	Terun kalai melivayi y-aya. (Ibid. 57.)
5.	Aikāra aukāra-k hurukkainkal anrarai
	māttirai peyum, (V. C. 5 Comm.)
6.	Kurinetilka l-ourirantu
200	er arabetteen f. wiritanien

	41141141414141414141414141414141414141
_	Ai-y-au v-afaron parai. (N. N. E. 5.)
7.	Münru uyiralapu irantüm netil onge
	Kuriletu ai au-k kurukkam arralapu
	(Na. 99,)
8.	Netil-iron tai-y-au-k kurukkan kuril-onra
	(I, V. 24.)

'U-ñ o-ö au-v-ena v-icaikkum A-p-pā l-aiutu m-italkuvin t-iyalum.' (ibid. 87.) All the later grammarians agree with Tolkappiyanar in this point.

A and \bar{a} are guttural vowels¹ i, \bar{i} , e, \bar{e} and ai are palatal² and u, \bar{u} , o, \bar{v} and au are labial.³. The minute distinction as regards the place of production of i or \bar{i} , e or \bar{e} and ai, and of u or \bar{u} , o or \bar{v} and au is not clearly expressed, but it is mentioned that their distinction is only small.⁴ & ⁵ The places of production of i and \bar{u} are modified, according to Tolkappiyam, by the consonant in whose company they are \bar{e} it seems to me that it is the consonant that precedes them that modifies their places of production; for instance in the words $n\bar{a}kkiy\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ ($n\bar{a}kk\bar{u}+y\bar{a}t\bar{u}$) and $tappiy\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ ($tapp\bar{u}+y\bar{a}t\bar{u}$), i is respectively guttural and labial. Similarly in the words $n\bar{a}kk\bar{u}$, $tace\bar{u}$, $tatt\bar{u}$, $matt\bar{u}$ and $tapp\bar{u}^{-1}\bar{u}^{-1}$ is respectively guttural, palatal, alveolar or cerebral, dental and

- Avarruļ
 A ā āpiran ţ-ainkān ziyalum. (Tol. E. 85.)
- Ii ce ai-y-eŋa y-icaikkum
 Appā l-ainin m-avarrē r-anna
 Availām
 Anpaŋ mutaŋā vilimpura l-uţaiya. (Ibid. 86.)
- U & o o au-v-eya v-icaikkum
 Appā l-aintu m-ital-kuvin t-iyatum. (Ibid. 87.)
- 4. Tattan tiripe ciriya weepa (Ibid. 88.)
- 5. This is perhaps after the model of Prātišākhyas. For instance in Šaunakaprūtišākhya it is said that e, 2nd varga, i & i åi, y & ś are palatals. Cf. Tūlavpavēkūra cakāravargā vikūrāikūrūnyakāraḥ śakūraḥ (R. V. P. i, 19). Similarly n, ū, ō, ān. 5th varga, v & upadhmāniya are said as labials. (Cf. R. V. P. 1, 20,)
 - 6. Cārntu-vari ŋ-allatu tamakkiyal pila-v-eŋa-t Tērntu-vēļi p patutta v-Tŋai mūngum Tattañ cărpig pigappotu civani Otta kāṭciyig gam-m-iyal p-iyalum. (Tol. E. 101.)

labial. But the authors of Nannūl and Ilakkaņa-viļakkam¹ say that they (i and ii) respectively agree with 'i' and 'n' in the place of production. Civañāṇa-muṇivar on the other hand agrees with Tolkāppiyaṇār² and he seems to be correct.

1.34. Treatment of each vowel sound,

1.341. 'A': 1.3411. Dr. Caldwell says in p. 133 "In Tamil 'a' is the heaviest of all the simple vowels and therefore the most liable to change. It evinces a tendency to be weakened into 'e' (Cf. Skt. balam—strength, with Tamil belam: Skt. japa—prayer, with Tamil śebam. See also the pronoun of the first person)".

It seems that the change of 'a' to 'e' in the above tadbhava words is not due so much to the heaviness of 'a' as to the peculiar way in which 'g', 'j', 'd', 'd' and 'b', the third plosive consonant of each varga in Sanskrit is pronounced. They are pronounced as 'g', 'j', 'd', 'd', 'a' and 'b'. When the Tamilians first learnt these sounds which were new to them, they had a tendency to write belam for balam though later on they began to adopt both the forms palay and pelay. This may be clearly seen from the following table:

Sanskrit	Tamil
Gangātīra	kenkätir am ³
Garuda	kelulan*
Gatdyus	ket@yu5

- Cărpelut tenavun tammuta l-anaiya. (Na. 87.)
 Cărpelut tenavun tam-muta l-anaiya. (I. V. 13.)
- Iţamum parçukhāţum hurriyal-iharak hurriyal-ukaraikaŋir; arku-c cür peŋavē-y-aŋri-k kurukiyicaittarku-k kāraŋumākāeŋakkaļka. (T. M. V. p. 28.)
- Kenkü-tiruttust-tecam. (P. K. 33, 220.)
 (The country on the banks of the Ganges.)
- 4. Kelulano nanta penna. (C. C. 1925.) (Whether Nanda is Garuda.)
- 5 Camar purintavan-rānum ketāyu v-āyinān. (V. P. 405, 37.) (Even he who engaged himself in battle lost his life.)

Sanskrit Tamil
Gaja kecam¹
Japa cepam²
Bahuvrihi vekuviriyan³.

But at the same time they use the same sounds without change also,

Sanskrit Tamil Gagana kakayam^t Gangā kankai^t Gaja kacam⁶.

The same change does not generally take place when $^{*}a'$ is preceded in Sanskrit by kh or gh, ch or jh, dh, ph or bh,

Sanskrit Tamil
Khadyöta kaccötam!
Ghata katam!
Chala calam!
Jhatiti catiti!

- Ktca turaka mutalāņa caturankam. (Tā. 33, 6.)
 (The four limbs consisting of elephants, horses, etc.)
- Cepan-tanan-tāṇam. (C. P. 319, 2.)
 (Meditation, penance and gifts.)
- Vehavirinen. (Pi, 24.)
 (Possessive compound.)
- Kakapa-vänarkal (Ka. P. i. 493, 13.)
 (Residents of celestial regions.)
- Kankai kankai y-enga vācakatrātē. (P. A. T. 80, 1.)
 (With the words of the Ganges, the Ganges.)
- Kaca-rata-turaka-mā-k-kaṭal. (Kampar, B. 149, 22.)
 (The vast sea of elephants, chariots and horses.)
- Kaccētam cņrū karnti. (Ka. P. j. 569, 43.)
 (Having taken it to be glow-worm.)
- Kaṭamuṇi-cēṛaiōṭum. (Kz. P. i. 133, 65.)
 (With the arrival of the pot-sage Agastya.)
- Cala-p-paşaiyan iravir rükkiyat-ellim. (Pari. 43, 57.)
 (All the on-slaughts of the Indian Cupid at nights.)
- 10. Capiti rilată. (C. P. 84, 20.) (Having fallen soon.)

Sanskrit Tamil
Dharani tarani¹
Phala palam²
Bhaya payam³.

Hence we may safely infer that 'a' generally changes to 'e' when it is preceded by the third consonant of each varga and not by the second or the fourth. Besides such a change is not seen in pure Tamil words.

[.3412. Dr. Caldwell further observes that "'a' has almost entirely disappeared from the end of nouns in Tamil and has been succeeded by 'u' or 'ei'. Where final 'a' changes into 'ei' in Tamil, it generally changes into 'e' in Canarese.... In Telugu and especially in Malayāļam, this vowel is less subject to changes".

No doubt the nouns that end in 'a' in Tamil are rare. The few cases where they end in 'a' are palla, pala, cila, ulla, illa, etc. But whether the 'a' that stood at the end of words was changed to 'u' or 'ei' deserves careful examination. Because Telugu and Malayillam have 'a' at the end where Tamil has 'ai' and Canarese 'a', as is seen from the following table, he seems to conclude that 'a' was the final sound at the end of such words in the parent Dravidian Language.

Tamil	Telugu	Malayāļam	Canarese
katai	kuda	kada	kade
karai	kara	kara	kare
kalai		kala	kale
karai	hara	kara	tare

- [, Tarani-mēr rilakam-ayndy. (C. C. 1178.) (You are like a /ilka on earth.)
- Pala-v-in palam. (P. N. 109, 5.)

(Jack-fruit)

- Paymerinotum retta. (T. T. P. 206, 21.)
 (To go with fear.)
- Cl. Palla palacile v-innum popurum Utta v-illa v-ennum pepurum (Tot. Cot. 168.)

But considering the statement of Dr. Caldwell, that " Tamil being probably the earliest cultivated of all the Dravidian idioms. the most copious, and that which contains the largest portion and the richest variety of indubitably ancient forms, it is deservedly placed at the head of the list" (C. D. G. p. 6.), and considering the fact that words ending in 'ai' are found in Tolkāppiyam (Ci. avai-y-ivai y-eya varaum peyarum...Tol, Col. 167). and that it is more natural for 'ai' to be lightened to 'e' (as is found even now in spoken Tamil yāṇai as yāṇe, karai as kara, etc.) and later to 'a' as Tolkappiyanar says that 'ai' may be changed to 'ay', the 'y' of which may afterwards be dropped, is it not more reasonable to assume that the parent Dravidian language had 'ai' at the end of such words instead of 'a'? But in the medieval period 'a' before the palatal explosives 'c' and ' π ' and semi-vowel 'y' in the middle of words had a tendency to change to 'ai' mostly in literary works perhaps by the influence of prosody. Cf. araicay for aracay in kali-araisay (Ep. I, Vol. XVII, Pt. VII, V. G. line 90), mainen for maneu, maival for mayal, etc.2. Then through analogy 'ai' was substituted for 'a' even before non-palatal sounds. Cf. palaimai, ilaimai, for palamai and ilamai respectively. Hence Dr. Caldwell's statement that 'a' is most liable to change may apply to a certain extent only in the medieval period and in the modern period. Cf. caritai for Skt. carita.

1.3413. Besides it may be interesting to note that the Tamil pronunciation of 'a' may have influenced the South Indians to pronounce the Sanskrit 'a' at the end of words like paiya, vada, gaccha, etc. as an open vowel though it is a close one according to P. A. 8.4.68 and M.B.i.15.14 and it is still pronounced in North India as such.

1,3411. ' \bar{A} '; 1,34111. The statement of Dr. Caldwell that ' \bar{a} ' is formed in Tamil by the coalescence of two short

Akara-t t-impar yakara-p pulliyum
 Ai-y-c netuñ-cinui mey-pera-t tonrum. (Tol. E. 56.)

^{2.} A ai mutal-igas y-okkuñ ca-ña-ya-mun. (Na. 123.)

a's' is quite against the genius of the Tamil language. This is one of the points where Tamil differs generally from Sanskrit. If two short a's come together in Tamil as pala+ayam, an intervocalic v' is generally inserted between them as pala-v-ayam and they can never coalesce into a'.

1.34112. Again he says that 'ā' becomes poetically 'ā'?. This existed even in the ancient period and is supported by Tolkāppiyam³. But he says that viņņavar becomes viņņār. This need not be. A personal noun viņņār may be formed by adding the plural suffix 'ār'¹¹ to the noun viņ and 'ā' may be substituted for 'ā'⁵ in the same way as the final 'a' in Sanskrit is pronounced as 'a' by Bengalis at the present day. Ci. villāŋ for villāŋ and nattār for nattār in the stanza.

villön kölana kalalē...nallör yar kol-aļīyar tāmē. (Ku. T. 7.)

1.34113. He then says that final 'ā' of Sanskrit feminine abstracts becomes 'ai' in Tamil. This may be accepted as a general rule though modern writers do not strictly adhere to it.6

1.342. 'I'. This is inserted when Sanskrit words having conjunct consonants, one of which is generally 'y', 'r' or 'l', are Tamilised. Cf. pattiyam, llakkiyam, vättiyam pattiram, cukkilam for Ski. pathya, laksya, vädya, patra and šukla⁷. In ancient period this is substituted for a final 'y'. Ct. näi (sa@) for näy⁸.

^{1. &}amp; 2. C. D. G. 133.

Ā-φ-ð v-ākum peyarum-ā r-uļavē
 Ā-y-iţa ŋ-agitat ceyyul ţ-uiţē. (Tol. Col. 193.)

Ar är pa-ena varün müngum Pallör marunkig paţarkkai-s colli. (Ibid. 206.)

Păl-ari marapi B-ammă v-îrrum Ā-v-ō v-ākuñ ceyyu [-nijē. (Ibid. 211.)

Cf. anukampam for Skt. anukampā in 'anukampam..., uţas yarē ciţantār. (Civa. pala. 39.)

⁽Great are they who have compassion.)

^{8.} Ikara yakara m-iguti pirazum. (Tol. E. 58.)

1.3421. 'I'. The final 'i' in ni is shortened when case-suffixes are added to it¹.

1.343. 'U', Dr. Caldwell says that "n is of all vowels the weakest and lightest and is largely used especially at the end of words for euphonic purposes or as a help to enunciation. Tamil rule with regard to the addition of 'u' to words which end in a consonant is that in words which end in any hard or surd consonant, viz., k, ch, t, t or p, or in the hard rough r which is peculiar to these languages, the hard consonant shall be followed by 'u' in consequence of its being impossible for Tamilian organs of speech to pronounce those letters without the help of a succeeding vowel. In most instances this enunciative 'n' is not merely short but so very short that its quantity is determined by grammarians to be equal only to a fourth of the quantity of a long vowel It often happens (though it is not an invariable rule) that the final surd to which enunciative 'n' has been appended, is doubled apparently for the purpose of furnishing a fulcium for the support of the appended yowel. Thus the Sanskrit vāk becomes vākku. The rule is further extended in Tamil so as to apply to the final consonants of syllables as well as to those of words. If a syllable, though in the middle of a word, terminates in one of the hard consonants above mentioned and if the initial consonant of the succeeding syllable is one which cannot be assimilated to it, the final consonant is doubled and 'u' is affixed. Thus Skt. advaita becomes in Tamil attuvaida".

Here three points are to be noted:—(1) The rule stated above holds good only in the case of tadbhana words (i.e.) words tamilised from Sanskrit; for no pure Tamil word can have according to the Tamil grammarians, k, c, t, t, p or r as the final member². (2) The "u" that is added at the end of such words

Ni-ye p-oru-peyar netu-mutat huyukum Āvayi n-akara m-orgā kum-m-2. (Ibid. 180.)

Na-na-na-ma na-ya-ra-la va-la-la- v-ennum Ap-pati y-ong'è puffi y-iguti. (Ibid. 78.)

have, in the opinion of the Tamil grammarians, for their quantity one mātrā" and not half a mātrā as stated by Dr. Caldwell; for, this 'n' does not play the same part in sandhi as 'n' (kurriyal-nkaram) at the end of pure Tamil words:-vākku (tadbhava of vák)+iňké becomes vákkn-v-iňké; while nákkú (pure Tamil word) + inkê becomes nêkkitikê, the intervocalic 'v' being inserted in the former case and " \dot{n} " being dropped in the latter case2, (3) The addition of 'n' at the end of a syllable under the conditions stated above has certain limitations. It cannot hold good where there are two or more conjunct consonants. For instance, the Sanskrit word plutūksara is tamilised into bulutākkaram and not pulutākkuṣaram. Hence the same law may be modified thus :- wherever in the middle of a word two or more conjunct consonants which can not be assimilated to each other appear, the intervocalic 'i' (vyakta into viyattam) or 'n' (pluta into pulutam) is inserted since the genius of the Tamil language is to minimise the conjunct consonant. 'U' alone is not inserted, but 'i' also is inserted; this is generally determined by the consonants that precede and those that follow. This point is clearly stated in Viracoliyam and Nannul, the grammars of the medieval period3. Viracoliyam speaks of the

Ētu, tātu eņņum voţa-moli-y-iţuti-y-ukuramum...kuţuki-yicoittal-vēnţum...aimaņam icaiyāmaiyiņ...kuţţiyal-ukaram tamil-cciţappeluttākalin vatamoliţin vārātāyiţţā. (T. M. V. 28.)

^{2.} But it must be noted that the final 'u', whether at the end of pure Tamil words or tadhham words or tatsame words, is now pronounced as if its 'û', though grammers sanction it only in certain cases. This is a clear case where take analogy has played its part to the full; for instance, the final 'u' in 'itu' must have one matra and must be pronounced as 'u', but it is now pronounced as 'û' though it is quite against the rules of grammar.

^{3.} Kütteluttin-pin ya-ra-ta-k-katöngişiy küttitaiyö
Ötteluttüka-p peyum-ar-iküram va-v-wu-k-k-or-u-v-z-üm
Mütteluttu-t-tami l-atlany-pöm-vēçu tēya-c-celtin
Mütteluttum-m-ita nül-ayi-mayrai vikürattinē. (V. Tat. S.)
Inaintiyal külai ya-ra-la-k-k-ikaram-um

insertion of 'i' and 'u', while Naggūl speaks of that of 'a' also as in aratayam, the tadbhara of Sanskrit ratual, which is seen in the following sentence,

' aratanak kalaca viyan karam ' (T. P. katavul, 3)

(Big hand holding a pot made of gems.)

- 1.3431. ' \bar{U} '. \bar{U} , as Dr. Caldwell says, is sufficiently persistent.
- 1.344. 'E'&'O'. These two sounds, Dr. Caldwell says, are not found in Sanskrit. His statement is almost true; but Patañjali in his Mahābhāṣya says that 'e' and 'e' are not generally found in Sanskrit, but find a place in the Sātyamugri and Rāṇāyanīya Šākhās of the Sāma Vēda². The same point is noted in Tolkāppiya-mutaṛ-cūttira-virutti³.
- M. J. Vinson says that 'e' and 'o' are always preceded by 'y' & 'w' respectively. This is true in the Tamil districts of India; but in Jaffna, I hear that it is not so'.
- 1.345. 'E' and 'Ö'. Dr. Caldwell seems to think like the Tanul grammarians of the modern period that these two sounds are the same as are found in Sanskrit. The author of Pirayökavivèkam says in his commentary under the 5th sutra 'akara v-ikaram-ē kūram-ākum' (a and i become ē) and 'akara v-ukaram-ākum' (a and u become ē) and calls them canti-y-akkaram.

Mawyak keukaram-um nakarak k-akaram-um Micai-turum ra-v-vali y-u-v-vu m-ām piya. (Na. 149.)

- 1. This insertion of a vowel at the beginning is called prothetis anaptyxis and the same in the middle is called medial anaptyxis. This plays a large part in the Indian Präkyts. Cf. 1111yā for 1117 and paduma for padma.
- Chand özünüm sütjamugri rönäyaniyäh ardhamihöram ardhamökärañ cüdhjäyatë; naiva hi lokë nänyasmin vedë ardha ekürarördhabärö västi (M. B. i. 22, lines 21, 23 & 24).
- 3. Ekara okarankal....comazktam-uţaiyārul oru-carar icai parri-k kulūu-k-kurspola k kontātupa-v-ākalānum (T. M. V. 26).
- 4. A temporary fact of Phonetics in Dravidian, Dixieme Serie tome 18, 1911....(J. A.)

Civañana-munivar also says so,1 But it seems to me that they are entirely different; for the Sanskrit 'c' and 'a' are diphthongs in their origin wherever they represent the Indo-Germanic tautosyllabic ai, ei and oi, and tauto-syllabic on, en and on, respec-They are still remembered as such in Prātiśākhyas (R. V. P. i, 11: and A. V. P. iii, 40), and by the Sanskrit Grammarians Pāṇini, Patañjali and others. Cí. ēcah sandkyaksarēni, For grammatical purposes too, they are such when a and i coalesce into ' &', and a and a coalesce into 'a' and wherever they are respectively split into ay and av in sandhi as in dēvē+ iha and gurō iha which respectively become devayiha and guravika. But they are not diphthongs wherever they represent the Indo-Germanic az. In pronunciation, they became simple long vowels even in the Samhitā period. This is seen from the fact that, in sandhi if the initial member of the succeeding word is 'a' and the final member of the preceding word is ' \tilde{e} ' or ' \tilde{e} ', the 'a' is elided. '(cf. $har\tilde{e} + atra = har\tilde{e}tra$: $gur\tilde{e} + atra =$ garotra) Ci. lupyatě tu akūra-ēkārānkārapārvah (Tai. P. xi, 1); ēkāra-ukārāntāt pārvaķ padādērakārasya (A. V. P. iii, 53). For grammatical purposes it is more an exception that they are simple long vowels rather than a general rule. But in Tamil they are always simple sounds as in the parent Indo-European language, and not diphthongs; for a + i becomes $a \cdot v \cdot i$ or a + i becomes $a \cdot v \cdot i$ as in a-v-v-itam and \bar{a} -y-irutinat, and so also a + u becomes a-v-uas in pala-v-unta. This difference in their nature is one of the points which determine that Tamil is independent of Sanskrit.

M. J. Vinson is of opinion that these two also are preceded by 'y' and 'w' in their pronunciation. But I hear that such is not the case in Jaffua.

1.346. 'AI': 1.3461. Dr. Caldwell says in p. 133 that "ci unlike the Sanskrit diphthong 'ai' represents c and i and not a

Ekaram-övatu akarakküşum-ikarakküşum....tammuţ-otticaittu naramatahkal-pöngökalünum....izvögötal-paggi z, ö, ai, an engu nönkipaiyum vaţanülür contiyakkaram-enpar. (T. M. V. 25.)

^{2.} Cf. M. V. G. p. 4 Para 6 and p. 15 Para 2.

and i." The reasons he adduces for the same are (1) 'it is represented in Grantha and Malayalam by a double e and in Telugu-Canarese by a character which is compounded of e and i; (2) it is also to be observed that the Tamil ei is the equivalent of the e of the Malayalam accusative and is the ordinary representative of the final e of Canarese substantives and verbal nouns; (3) it is worthy of notice also that Kumārilabhaṭṭa in transliterating Tamil naḍei into Sanskrit characters writes it not as naḍei, but as naḍei.

If the first reason holds good for Tamil 'ei', it holds good for Sanskrit 'āi' also, since it is represented in Devanagari script as two e's (\mathfrak{R}) ; it is not safe to determine the nature of a sound from its symbol.1 The second point has already been answered under 1.3412. As regards the third point, Kumārilabhatta may have had in his mind the forms of spoken Tamil but not of written Tamil for he says cor for coru.2 The 'u' at the end is only ' it' and so people may have pronounced cârii as almost similar to $c\bar{e}_{T}$. I have already stated that the final (u) or (u) is spoken only as ' ii'. Similarly undai also may have been pronounced as nade, as is done even now. Hence Dr. Caldwell's third reason also cannot stand. Besides, Tolkappiyanar clearly says that ai my be split into a and i 3 and ay may be used instead of ai 4. It also appears to me that the way in which Tamil ai was, and is, pronounced may have influenced the pronunciation of Sanskrit at in the pre-Christian Era; for, in the earliest times, it is possible that the latter was pronounced as āi since it represented generally the Inde-Germanic di, di and di. At the time of the author of Taittiriya-Prātiśākhya, it appears it

^{1.} The symbols in Teluge for v, p, s, n and h have greater similarity than dissimilarity and it is not safe to conclude from it that they are related sounds.

^{2.} Cor ityakit (K. T. V. under 1-3-9 and pp. 200 and 201 in Vol. 42 of the Indian Antiquary).

^{3.} Akara ikara m-aikāra m-ākum. (Tol. E. 54,)

^{4.} Akara-t t-impar yakara-p pulliyum Ai-y-e netuñ-cinai mey-pera-t tongum. (Ibid. 56.)

was pronounced as $a(\frac{1}{2}) i(1\frac{1}{2})$ where a had half a matra and i one and a half matras.

Cf. Akardraham dikuraukarayoh adih

and

Ikārā adyardhah pūrvasya śēṣaḥ. (Tai. P. ii, 26 and 28.)

The same, it seems to me, was the pronunciation at the time of Patanjali.

Cl. Aichsea uttarabhūyastvāt,

(M. B. i, 22, 18.)

It has been accepted that Patañjali lived in the 2nd century before Christ. The Tamil extant Grammar Tolkāppiyam may be taken to belong at least to the beginning of the Christian era, and there is no inscription or literary work in Tolugu, Kanarese and Malayālam belonging to that date. It is evident that, at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār, ai in Tamil was pronounced in the same way as it is now, since he says ai may sometimes be written as ai (20) or ay (20): Hence I am led to believe that the present pronunciation of Sanskrit ai might be due to the influence of Dravidian languages, especially Tamil.

1.3462. This ai is different from Sanskrit ai in two ways. Sanskrit ai is, for grammatical purposes, $\bar{a}i$, and it is formed by the coalescence of a or \bar{a} with \bar{e} ; but, in Tamil, if a or \bar{a} is followed by \bar{e} , both would respectively become 'avē' generally and $\bar{a}v\bar{e}$ or $\bar{a}y\bar{e}$, but never 'ai'. Hence, this cannot be said to be a diphthong in the same way as the Sanskrit $\bar{a}i$; but it may be called so since it is split into a and i, or a and y, if it stands at the beginning of a word. Cf. aivanam Agaresis or ayvanam for aivanam (gasesis).

^{1.} When Taittiriya-Prātišākhya says that ai was a (½) i (1½) it refers in all probability to its pronunciation. Sukla Yajorvēda Prātišākhya says that the first part of ai and au is a and the second part and ā. This evidently refers to the elymology of the same. Rg.vēda Prātišākhya and Atharva-vēda Prātišākhya do not seem to say anything definitely on this point. But Dr. A. A. MacDonell says that ai and au were pronounced as ai and au even at the time of Prātišākhyas. (M. V. G. 15. +.) I am not able to find out why he has said so.

1.347. 'AU'. Dr. Caldwell states that 'it has been placed in the (Dravidian) alphabets solely in imitation of Sanskrit. It is used only in the pronunciation of Sanskrit derivatives; and when such derivatives are used in Tamil, they are more commonly pronounced without the aid of this diphthong. Ordinarily, the diphthong is separated into its component elements; that is, the simple vowels a and n, from which it is derived, are pronounced separately, with the usual cuphonic v of the Tamil between them to prevent histus,-e.g. the Sanskrit noun sankliyam is ordinarily pronounced and written in Tamil as šavnkkivam," (C. D. G. 136.) The same opinion is held by M. J. Vinson! and G. U. Pope.2 Their whole argument stands on the assumption that it is used only in the pronunciation of Sanskrit derivatives. But there are words like anyon, panyonn, kanyutai, vanyutal, etc. which are pure Tamil words. In such cases on is replaced by av as awai, harram, karrutal, ravintal, etc. and not by any as in fannkkiyam as stated by Dr. Caldwell. Cl. noy kanni (N. 70.) kavriyam (P. N. 188. 4). Besides, Tolkappivanar says that the initial an of a word may be split into n and n^3 and llampūranar says under Tol. E. 56 that it may be replaced by av as ai is replaced by ay. But Sanskrit an though it was pronounced even at an early period as and is for grammatical purposes only an and can be replaced by only an and not an. It also seems to me that the Tamil pronunciation of an may have changed the pronunciation of Sanskrit ān as in the case of āi, since the Sanskrit an ought to have been once pronounced as an and then as $a(\frac{1}{2}) = (1\frac{1}{2})$ at least till the time of Mahābhāṣya.

1.348. 'i'. This sound is peculiar to Tamil. It is found in the middle of words like $k\bar{e}ymiy\bar{a}$, and in places where the

Sur un caractere singulier dans F alphabet Tamoul in J. A. Onzieme Serie tome vii, 1916, p. 313, 4.

^{2,} P. H. T. L. p. 13.

^{3.} Ahara ukara m-anhāra m-ākum. (Tol. E. 55.)

^{4.} M. V. G. 15, 3,

Kurriya lihara nirral ventum Vanen cinai-micai uraiyacai-k kiluni-k-Kdvayin varaum makara m-ūratē. (Tol. E. 34.)

final ' \hat{n} ' of a word is followed by 'y' as in $n\hat{a}k\hat{n} + y\hat{a}t\hat{n} = n\hat{a}k\hat{n} + y\hat{a}t\hat{n}$.

What could be its origin? This may have been originally in the parent Dravidian language a glide almost similar to ' \hat{u} ', and it may have been represented by \hat{r} whenever it was followed by the palatal semi-vowel y. Hence the Tamil grammarians have stated that \hat{u} changes to \hat{t} when the former is followed by y in sandhi.

1.3481. 'Ü': 1.34811. It has already been stated that this differs from u both in quality and quantity and also undergoes change in sandhi quite differently from it. This is not found in Sanskrit, but it plays a large part in Tamil and so Tolkäppiyam contains one full chapter explaining the changes which it undergoes in sandhi. It is used as the final member of words except in the word uintai² after a voiceless consonant in words other than those which have only one short vowel which is not followed by a conjunct consonant or sytam.\(^3\) Thus in atu, itu, utu, u is not kurriyal-ukaram; but in ahkū, ahtū, alapū, yālū, it is kurriyal-ukaram. U in ɛ[u, the modern form of ancient ē] cannot be kurriyal-ukaram according to its definition in grammar, though it is pronounced so now. I have already stated that it has for its organ of articulation that of the previous voiceless consonant.\(^4\) (Ci. 1.22. supra)

What could be its origin? Was it formerly u and was then shortened on account of accent or was it a vowel glide like the neutral vowel which appeared in pronouncing the final

Punariyo qilai-yitai k kuyukalu m-uritte Unara-k kürin munnari 100 rum. (1bid. 35.)

Kurriya l-ukara murai-p-peyar maruhkin Orriya nakara-micai naharametu mutatum. (Ibid. 67,)

Nettelut t-impurun totarmoli y-irrum Kurriya t-ukaram valtā rūrutā, (Ibid. 36.)

Cārntu-vari ŋ-allatu tamakk-iyat p-ila-v-eŋa-t Terntu-velip paţutta v-lŋai mūllgum Tattañ sārpig pigappoţu civaŋi Otta kūţciyig gam-m-iyat p-iyatum. (Ibid. 101.)

voiceless consonants and later on taken as a secondary sound? If it were the former, it need not play in sandhi a part different from u. I have already stated that it (ii) is dropped if it is followed by a word commencing with a vowel, while u takes the intervocalic u when it is followed by a vowel. cf. nākhi + iikhē = nākhinkē; atu + iikhē = utuviūkh. Hence the latter view that it was in the parent Dravidian a vowel glide is worth considering. If that he so, we have to assume that the Tamil grammarians happened to recognise the glide, take it as a secondary sound and conclude that no voiceless consonant could be the final member of any word.

1.3482. UYIR-ALAPETAI: 1.34821. The authors of Viracoliyam, Neminātam, Naṇṇūl, Hakkaṇa-vilakkam and Pira-yöka-vivēkam state that the seven sounds, āa, āi, āu, ēe, aii, ōe, aun are uyir-alapeṭai each having three māirās and have taken them as secondary vowels.

But Tolkāppiyaṇār has not mentioned them under secondary sounds; for it seems to me that in cases of alapotai, δa , ii, etc. are not single sounds according to him, but two sounds made up of δ and a, i and i, etc. This is clear from the following points mentioned by him. He states in the sutra

Mū-v-aļa p-icaitta l-ōr-eļut t-iŋṛē. (Tol. E. 5.)
that there is no single sound having three mātrās; in the sūtra
Nīṭṭam vēṇṭi n-n-v-aṭa p-nṭaiya
Kūṭṭi y-cṭūnta l-eṇmaṇār polavar. (ibid. 6.)

he says that, if the quantity of a sound is to be lengthened, separate sounds having the desired additional quantity should be added. In the satra

Kunricai moli-vayi n-inricai niraikkum Nettelut t-impa r-otta-kur reluttē. (ibid. 4).)

^{1.} Here it is worth noting that the vowel-glide / between d & r in the Sanskrit word Indra has appeared as a separate letter in the word Indira derived from the same. Similarly, the second a in the word manoraiha which originally was manoraiha. (Wackernagel's Altindisch Grammatik.)

it is said that as many short like-vowels are added after a long vowel as the additional matras needed. In the satra

E-cya caram-uyar mayyî y-ākūtū. (ibid. 71.) it is said that a cannot be the final letter of a word if it is preceded by a consonant and in the sūtra

Ekara v-okaram poyarkki y-ākā Muguitas moliya v-egmanār palavae Tēyyamnā ciyappu m-alvali y-āņu. (ibid. 273.)

it is said that it follows & denoting certainty or superiority. Hence in &e kontan, a is taken to be a sound separate from c. In the satra

Tërra v-charamun cirappi v-ceeum Mër-kû r-iyarkai valleluttu mikumë. (ibid. 274.) he says 'tërra v-charamum' which clearly shows that ë and v in ëe are considered separate sounds. In the sütra

 \tilde{E} -y-e η -irnti-k k-ckaram varume. (ibid. 278.) he says that e will follow \tilde{e} . That the same is the case with e in \tilde{e} 0 is inferred from the sutras Tol. E. 273 and

Vērrumai-k kaņņu vi-ataņā r-azrē Okaram varuta l-ā-vayi ņ-āņa. (ibid. 293.)

In the sutra

Kuriyalan munyaru m-breluttu molikkum Ariya-t tönru m-akara-k kilari, (ibid. 227.)

it is said that a is inserted after \tilde{a} , the final member of the standing word, if it is preceded by a short vowel as $pald-a-k-k\bar{a}t\dot{a}$ or if it happens to be a single lettered word.\(^1\) In the sutra,

Alapetai mikūu m-ikura-v-irupeyar Iyarkaiya v-ākuā-ceyarkaiya v-vapa.

(Tol. Col. 125.) he says that the word ending in *i* which generally appears with *alapetai* in the nominative case remains as it is without any change in the vocative case. For instance, the word

It may be noted that the author of Pirayöka vivēkam says that in marāuţi, panūaţiu, u is separate from ā and an intervocalic is not inserted between them. (P. V. P. 49.)

talfii can be used in the same form as nominative or vocative. Here he states that the final member of such words is i and not ii. Besides in Ceyyul-iyal, a section in the third chapter of Tolkäppiyam, he says that alapetai may be taken as a separate syllable in prosody¹. For example in paniyār tēem (Pattu. 220, 230) tē is taken as one acai and on as another, though e is added to prolong the quantity of ē.² Similarly in kaṭāak kalirripmēl (K. 1087) kaṭā is taken as one acai and ak as another.³

The reason why he does not treat āa, Ii, etc. in cases of alapetai as single sounds seems to me this. In Manusmyti there is a line

Akārašcāsya nāmnontē vācyah pārvākţarah plutah (M. S. 2. 125.)

in connection with the use of pluta in pratyabhi-vādana, This is interpreted by some commentators that a is only apalaksayam here and it means that the final syllable of the name of the person who prostrates himself before another should be fluta in the blessings offered by the latter, in the same way as is said by Pāṇini; (i.e.) if Dēvadatta is a dvija and prostrates himself before another, another should say 'dyuşman bhava Devadatta3'; if he is Hari, "avuşman bhava Hare3" etc. But Haradatta, the author of Padamañjari, a commentary on Kāśikāvṛtti, interprets the same line in a different way. The final syllable should be thata and an 'a' should be added to it at the end. Hence the pratvabhi-vādana should be in the form ayusman bhava Devadatta3 a.' Similarly if two persons Samblin and Pinākapāni are at a distance and they are called, the forms that should be used in the vocative case are Sambha3 and Pinākabāņes in the opinion of Pāṇini and Sambhos a, and Pinākapāneš a, in the opinion of Haradatta. Similarly if they are not at a distance, the forms that should be used are Sambha3 u and Pinākapāņa3 i according to Pānini, and Sambha3 ve and Pinākapāņa3 ve according to Haradatta4.

Alapetai-pacai-nilai-pūkalu-m-urittē. (Tol. Ceyyu. 17.)

^{2 &}amp; 3. These are cases of hiatus allowed by Tolkappiyanar,

Pandit Reprint 12. Kāšākā vyākhyā uttarārdha p. 960 and
 P. A. S. 2, 83, 8, 2, 84 and 8, 3, 107.

The latter says that his interpretation is based on what is said in Bharataśāstra.

From this it is evident that there were two schools as regards the use of pluta. Tolkappivanar having in his mind the view of the author of Bharataśāstra may have thought that, since a separate syllable a is used by him in all places, there is no need for the previous sound to be pluta, and hence may have said that there is no need for a sound a3 having three matras before the final a. Besides to have a even after $i\beta$, $a\beta$, $a\beta$ may not have appealed to him. Hence he may have thought that, if one wants to use similar sounds, one might as well use $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{a} , \bar{e} and \bar{a} with t, u, c and o following them. This is most probably the reason for his saying that there is no single sound having three mātrās (Tol. E. 5). Hence, according to him, a[atelai is that sound a, i, n, etc. which is super-added to the preceding long vowel a, i, a, etc. It may be worth noting that the term ala tetai is adapted from the term pluta though in a somewhat different sense.

But the author of Viracoliyam in the light of what is said in Pāṇini's grammar may have mistaken afa petai for pluta in Sanskrit and hence has stated that du, ti, etc. are afa petai and the others may have followed him. They have taken them as secondary sounds, since according to them secondary sounds are those which are other than primary sounds and no primary sound has more than two mātrās for its quantity. If afa felai, according to them, has three mātrās, they should have given separate names for āna, ānan and so on. But they have not done so. Perhaps they too may be called afa petai in the same way as a sound of four mātrās in Sanskrit is called pluta?. The authors of Nēminātam, Nannūl, Ilakkaņa-viļakkam and Tonnūl-viļakkam have followed the author of Vīracoliyam in toto in this point; but the authors of Nāṇnūl and Ilakkaṇa-viļakkam, when they make mention of the vowels that can stand finally in words,

I searched for this statement in the extant editions of Bharata's Nātyašāstra, but I was not able to find it out.

^{2.} Ispote ova catur matroh plutah (M. B. iii. 421, 13 & 14).

say that the short vowels can stand finally even when they are part of alapetai. This is not consistent with their statement that alapetai has three matras. Hence it seems to me that they two did not have a decisive idea about it.

Uraiyāciriyar and Naccinārkkiņiyar in commenting on the sūtra

Nīttam vēņti n-a-v-v-aļa-p ntaiya Kūtti-y-clūnta l-cņmaņār pulavar. (Tol. E. 6.)

say that the long and the short vowel should be pronounced together. Hence it appears that, in their opinion, āa, ii, etc., are pronounced as vowels having three māirās, but for grammatical purposes they are separate sounds. Civañāṇa-muṇivar, on the other hand, says that nļapēṭai vluttu has three mātrās² and it is made up of one long vowel and one short vowel and since it is used in the place of the long vowel only for lengthening its mātrā without any change in meaning, it is not included as a separate sound, and hence it is not included among vowels.¹ On considering the sūtras in Tolkāppiyam mentioned above, it may be clear that Civañāṇa-muṇivar confounds the pluta in Sanskrit with alapēṭai. But in the definition of cārpēṭattiā or secondary sounds he agrees with Tolkāppiyaṇār and hence he has not included alapēṭai among them.

The number of *nyir-alapatat* is 7 according to the grammarians of the medieval and modern periods except Nannūlār. He says that they are 21 taking into consideration the place in a word where it occurs, whether at the beginning, middle or end. But since the sound is generally the same whether it is at the beginning, middle or end, it does not appear to be scientific to further sub-divide 7 and make them into 21.

Kurruyi r-alapi n-iya m-eharam Mayib telü tan ma-v-va-tām-au Kahara vaharamō tāku m-enpa. (Na. 108 & I. V. 29.)

^{2.} Mūliyu māstiraiyāy uccarikkunkās alapetai y-elusteliyum (T. M. V. p. 24.)

Aļapeļai annetteļuttēļu....(p. 24, Line 3.) nuņņuņaraānērutuņarka (T. M. V. p. 24).

1.3483.— 'Shortened at': Aucient Period. Tolkäppiyanär mentions that 'ai' has in certain positions only one mātrā,¹ but does not say where it so happens, nor does he include such 'ai' among secondary sounds, since it has the same place of articulation as 'ai' though reduced in quantity, and it may sometimes be used as the initial letter of a word as aiyam and hence does not satisfy this definition of cārpeļuttū or secondary sounds.

Medieval and Medern Periods. The author of Viracoliyam says that the shortened ai, has for its quantity one matra and a half. The author of Neminatam agrees with him and includes it among secondary sounds. The authors of Namual, Hakkanavilakkam and Tonnul-vilakkam say that it has only one matra for its quantity. C. J. Beschi says that it is shortened in such words as aippaci where it is the initial letter, in words like mataiyan where it is medial and in words like kumulai where it is final. All of them include it among secondary sounds since it is other than 'ai' having two matras and hence satisfies their definition of carpeluttic. The division by Namualar of 'shortened ai' into three according to its place in a word is unnecessary and unscientifie: Civañana-munivar agrees with Tolkappiyanar.

Since no purpose is served by taking 'shortened ai' as a secondary sound, the opinion of Tolkāppiyaṇār seems to me to be the sound one.

1,3484. 'Shortened an': Ancient Period: Tolkäppiyanär does not speak definitely about this; but the commentators on the sotra

Ör-ala p-āku m-iţay-um-ā r-nuţē Tēruń kālai moli-vayi n-āna. (Tol. E. 57.)

say that what holds good for 'ai' holds good for 'au' also.

Medieval and Modern Periods: The 'shortened an' is considered in the same way, as 'shortened at.' Viracoliyam says that it has one and a half matras while the rest,' one matra.

Öraļa pāko meitanumā receţē
 Tērun kālai maļi-vaņi V-āba. (Tol. E. 57.)

Whatever is said of 'ai' holds good of 'au' also. C. J. Beschi says that an is shortened to an only when it stands initially. Dr. Caldwell does not make mention of the shortened an.

1.35. Vowel Gradation. This plays only a very small part in Tamil. In the declension of pronouns like $n\bar{i}$, $n\bar{o}m$, $t\bar{n}g$, the \bar{i} and the \bar{a} are shortened in the oblique cases as niggai, niggai, etc., nammai, nammai, nammai, etc., taggai, taggai, etc., and $y\bar{a}$ in the pronoun $y\bar{a}g$ is shortened to a in the oblique cases as aggai, aggai, etc. But on the whole its part in the Tamil language is very small since the cases and the conjugation in Tamil are not classified as strong and weak, except that the nominative case may be considered strong and the remaining weak.

In some of the verbal forms of monosyllabic roots having \bar{a}_i , \bar{a} is shortened to a_i .

Root.	Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Future.	Past Relative Participle.
$t\bar{a}$	tarnhirdn	tantān	laruvā <u>u</u>	tanta
$k\bar{a}n$	künkirün	kanţāŋ	kanpan	kanta
$C(\overline{k})$	cākigāņ	celtān	€Ö∵ä <u>v</u>	cetta

Sometimes the negative forms of verbs have long vowels, while the positive forms short ones.

Root,	Affirmative.	Negative.	
kan	kanţān	$k\bar{a}n\bar{a}n$	
านั	varuvāņ	rārdņ	
ta	larnvän	$t \tilde{a} r \tilde{a} n$	

In forming nouns from certain verbs, the short vowels are lengthened.

Root	Noun.
mitre	118 14
keļu	kë tie
paşn	$p\bar{a}tu$
2451 <u>4</u> 5	775 275
cuțu	cūfii

This is one of the most important points where Tamil differs from Indo-European languages in general and Sanskrit in particular where gradation plays a very prominent part.

1.36. Initial and final vowels in words in Tamil and in Sanskrit; Their Similarities and Dissimilarities: Tolkāppiyaṇār says that all the 12 primary vowels can stand both as the initial and the final member of words, but the final an can be preceded only by k or v, the final c cannot be preceded by any consonant, the final o by any consonant except n, the final ē and ō by ā and a and ā by n or v. Of the secondary vowels a cannot stand at the beginning, while shortened i can stand neither at the beginning nor at the end. The author of Viracoliyam differs from Tolkāppiyaṇār in the fact that e and o cannot stand as final members. This is possibly due to the fact that, according to the latter, e in ēe (a particle denoting certainty) is not a part of it in the same way as is taken by the former and the word in might have become obsolete in his time?.

But Nannulär and other grammarians agree with Tolkäppiyanär in this respect. According to them alapelai and shortened ai can stand both at the beginning and at the end, shortened an only at the beginning, is cannot stand at the beginning and i cannot stand either at the beginning or at the end,

Pagnī r-nyiru moļi-muta l-ākum. (Ibid, 59.)
 Uyir-au v-chciya v-iyuti y-ākum. (Ibid, 69.)
 Ka-va-v-ð ţiyaiyi n-au-v-u m-ākum. (Ibid, 70.)
 B-ena varum-uyir mey-y-â ṛ-ākātū. (Ibid, 71.)
 O-v-q-u m-aryē na-v-v-alah kaṭaiyē. (Ibid, 72.)
 Ē ð eŋum-uyir hakūra-t-t-illai. (Ibid, 73.)
 Ū ā kāra nu-va-v-otu napilā. (Ibid, 7÷.)

 Āvi ña-ņa-na-ma-nu ya-ra-la-va la-la-mey Cāyu m-ukara nāl-āţu m-īţē. (Na. 107).

The Rg-vēda Prātišākhya, the Sukla Yajur-vēda Prātišākhya and Atharva-vēda Prātišākhya say that $f(\mathbf{z})$ cannot stand as final.\(^1\) The Rg-vēda Prātišākhya adds f also in the 1st verse of the 12th chapter.\(^2\) The Sukla Yajur-vēda Prātišākhya adds that f can stand as final only in the first members of compounds.\(^3\) It seems to me that in mentioning the initial and the final vowels in words, Tolkāppiyaṇār has followed the Prātišākhyas since Pāṇini considered it unnecessary to mention them.



Nalkūrah svarīsu. (R. V. P. 1. 9.)
 Svarāšta Įkūravarjam. (S. V. V. P.1. 87.)
 Ankūrah svarah padyah (A. V. P. 1. ‡.)

^{2.} Nantam yanti. karalakaran. (R. V. P. 12. 1.)

^{3.} Nakārarkārāvagrakē. (S. Y. V. P. J. S8.)

1.4. CONSONANTS: 1.41. CLASSIFICATION.

1.411. Ancient Period:—Tolkāppiyaṇār says that there are eighteen consonants from k to n which may be classified as follows:—1

		Voiceless	Voiced
	[Guttural	k	ที่ไ
	Palatal	¢.	10 N
VM - 1	Cerebral		92
Plosives:	Alveolar	ţ.	n - Nasal also.
	Dental	į.	rr ,
	Labial	₫.	1953
	Palatal Cerebral	y r & l	
Semi-vowels		O. mo	
DOMEST POST PRO	Dental	, I,	
	Labio-dental	19	
Fricatives ²	Cerebral	Ţ	<u>l</u>

Tolkāppiyaṇār elassifies consonants as valliṇam, melliṇam and iṭaiyiṇam. This must have been done with reference to the muyaṛci (prayatna) or effect. K, ε , t, t, p and τ are mentioned as valliṇam³, \tilde{n} , \tilde{n} , η , η , η , η , as melliṇam⁴ and γ , r, l, v, l

The parallelism between

Nakara-v-iyuvüy-p patinenneluttumeyyena malipa. (Tol. E. 9.) and

Hakārāniāni kūdīni vyañianāni vidur budhāḥ. (B.N. p. 170, 8.) is worth noting; but we cannot say definitely whether the extant text of Nāṭyaśāstra is anterior or posterior to Tolkūppiyam.

- In Tamil grammar r and l are not separately classified as fricatives, but from their pronunciation, I have mentioned them as such for the sake of clearness.
 - 3. Vallelut tenpa ha ca ta pa-ra. (Tol. E. 19.)
 - 4. Mellelut teppa ita-na na na-ma-na, (ibid. 20.)

and l as $italyinam^{l}$. He does not mention the distinction between the semi-vowels y, r, l, v and the fricative l, nor takes r as a fricative. The word italyinam appears to me to be the translation of the Sanskrit outapstha.

He also states the place of articulation for the different consonants:—k and n are produced by the contact of the root of the tongue with the root of the hard palate, c and n by that of the middle part of the tongue with the middle part of the hard palate, f and g by that of the tip of the tongue with the front of the hard palate, f and g by that of the tip of the extended tip of the tongue completely touching the upper gums, f and g by the tip of the tongue being raised and allowed to gently touch the hard palate, f and f by the tip of the tongue being raised and allowed to gently press against the hard palate, f and f by the extended tip of the tongue respectively touching the upper gums and pressing against them, f and f by joining the lips f

^{1.} Ini-y-clut t-capa ya-ra-la va-la-la. (ibid. 21.)

^{2.} Kakāra hakāra mutaņā v-aņnam. (ibid. 89.)

^{3.} Cakāra ñakāra v-iţainā v-annam, (ibid. 90.)

^{4.} Takūra nakūra nuni nā v-annam. (ibid. 91.)

^{5.} Here it is to be noted that \$\pi\$ and \$\pi\$ as defined here are not now pronounced in the same way, but are pronounced as cerebrals; but the old pronunciation is generally preserved in Malayiljam.

Anna nanniya pan-mutan marinkin
 Nā-ungi parantu mey-y-uga v-ogga-t
 Tām inith pirakkun takāra nakāram. (Tol. E. 93.)

Anari nuni-nā t-anna m-orra Rabkā nabkā n-āpirantum pirakkum. (ibid. 94.)

Nuni-nā n-aņari y-aņņam varuţa
 Rakāra ļakāra m-āyiranţum pirakkum. (ibid. 95.)

Nā-viţimpû viiks y-anpam mutal-uru
Āvavi v-anna m-orravum varuţavum
Lukāra ţakāram-a y-irantum piyakkum, (ibid. 96).

^{10.} Ital-iyaintu piyakkum pakara makaram. (ibid. 97.)

a by bringing the upper teeth against the lower lip¹, y by allowing the air which passes through the neck to pass very close to the hard palate². And the *mellipum* letters have, in addition to their places of articulation noted above, the nose also³.

The difference between n and n is that the former is produced at the front of the palate with the tip of the tongue facing backwards and that the latter is produced behind it with the tip of the tongue facing forwards.

Here it is worth noting that the place of articulation for the gutturals, palatals, dentals, labials and r as mentioned by Tolkāppi-yaṇār closely agree with those mentioned in Taittirīya Prātišākhya and to a large extent with those in other Prātišākhyas. Cf.

Kukāra nakāra mutaņā v-aņņam (Tol. E. 86) with Hamumālė jihvāmūlėna kavargē sparšayati (Tai. P. ii, 35);

Cakara nakara mitai-no v-annam (Tol. E. 20) with

Tālāu jihwāmadhyēna cavargē (Tai. P. ii, 36) ;

Tālusthānā madhyēna (S. Y. V. P. i, 79) and

Tālavyānām madhya-jihvam (A. V. P. i. 21);

Annam nanniya ... nā-mni parantu . . takāra nakāram (Tol. E. 93) with

Jihvägrena tavarge dantamüleşn (Tai. P. ii, 38) and Dantyänäm jihvägram prastirnam⁴ (A. V. P. i, 24,); Ital-iyainta pigakkum pakära makäram (Tol. E. 97) with Oşthäbhyäm pavarge (Tai. P. ii, 39.);

Pal-t-ita t-iyaiya vakāram pirakkum. (ibid. 98.)

Annañ ezrata mitarrelu zali-y-isas Kannur zataiya yakāram piyakkum. (Ibid. 99.)

Mellelut t-üçum pirappi n-ükkañ
 Colliya palli nilaiyina v-üyina
 Mükkin vali-y-icai yāppuça-t töngum. (ibid. 100.)

The word practings in A. V. P. and the word parantu in Tolkappiyam convey exactly the same meaning.

Pal-l-italiyaiya vakaram pirakkum (Tol. E. 97) with Osthantabbyom dantair vakere (Tai. P. ii. 43.).

- 1. 412. Medieval period:—In the medieval period the same is said about the classification and production of consonants with this difference:—Nannūlār states that p and m are produced by the upper lip pressing upon the lower lip¹ and y is produced by allowing the root of the tongue to press upon the root of the hard palate². Practically, there is no difference between Nannūl and Toikāppiyam as regards the first point and there is slight difference as regards the second point.
- 1.413. Modern period; 14131. The author of the flakkanavilakkam agrees with Nannülär as regards the place of production of p and m and agrees with Tolkäppiyanär as regards that of y.³

1.4132.4		579 (2007)	Voiceless.	Voiced.	
				Nón-nasal.	Nasal.
	[Guttural	-	- k	g	di.
	Palatal		c	j	ŶĹ
Plosives.	- Cerebrat		ţ	d	25,226
	Dental		- t	d	73
	Labial		Þ	b	785

- 1. Miki I-italugap pa-m-ma-p piyakkum. (Na. 81.)
- 2. Afinā vatiyana murayat tongum. (ibid. 82.)
- Miki f-italug-e-p pakāra makāra m-irungu m-annañ cēruta mitatreļu vaļiyicai kannurgatiya yakāramum. (I. V. 12.)
- This refers to the coasonant sounds found in certain dialects, if I may so call them spoken in the districts of Madura, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, etc.
- 5. 'n' is now pronounced by rounding the tip of the tongue and making it touch the roof of the palate. Hence at present ; and a see cerebrals and not alveolars.
- 6. ' n' is classed as cerebral though, when pronouncing it, the tip of the tongue is raised and allowed to gently touch the hard palate which is in front of the roof.

Semi-vowels.	∫Palatal ∫Cerebral		y r, į
Schu-voweis.	Dental		ſ
	Labio dental		Ę,
	Palaial	Ŀ	
Fricatives.	-{ Dental	8	
	Cerebral	r & 5	1
Aspirate.		ls	

All the sounds noted here are not found in certain dialects. For instance, in the dialect spoken in Tinnevelly it is said by the residents there that the sounds \hat{s} and j are not generally found; in the dialect spoken in Madras the aspirate h is not generally found; in the dialect spoken at Jaffna it is said that most of the sounds g, j, d, d, b, \hat{s} and h are not found. Though new sounds have crept into the language, new symbols for them have not been introduced except for j, \hat{s} (in very few cases in Vaisnavaite works) g, s and h. But Dr. Caldwell thinks that all these sounds have been in existence in the Tamil Language from the earliest time since he says that the Tamillan rule which requires the same consonant to be pronounced as k in one position and as g in another ... is essentially inherent in the language and has been a characteristic principle of it from the beginning . Whether his view is correct or wrong will be discussed in 1.44, infra.

 1.42. A point to be noted about Vallingum, Mellingum and Iţaiyinam :—Ilampūraņar states in his commentary under the sūtra—

> Mellelul l-āzum pizappt u-ākkam Colliya paļļi nilatyiņa v-āyinum

Mükkın vali-y-icai yappınya-t tönyum (Tol. E. 100)

noted above that the six mel-l-clutti are clearly made audible by the air passing through the nose, though they are produced in the places noted above; since the word 'yāppura' is used, it is to be noted that iṭai-y-clutti are clearly made audible by the air passing through the neck or gullet and val-l-clutti by the air passing through the head. Here it deserves to be noted that

^{1.} Itai-y-sluttirkü mitarru-valiyam, val-l-eluttirkü talai-valiyan kolka. (Tol. E. 100, Ilam.)

Tolkäppiyanär has mentioned in the sütra that nose also is the place of production in addition to that mentioned for the respective masal possibly having before his mind the sütras missikyäh näsikästhänäh (Tai. P. ii, 49.) and vargavaccäişu (Tai. P. ii, 51). How Ilampüranar and the later grammarians have made a mistake has been fully dealt with in 1.1. sufva.

Another point to be noted about Itai-y-inam :- in llakkanavilakkam1 and Tolkappiya-mutarcuttira-virutti2 it is said that itaivigant is midway between vallagant or the voiceless. consonants and the mellinum or the nasals in their nature. It is not clear how it is so. Itai-y-cluttie is simply the translation of the Sanskrit antahstha which means midway between vowel and sparsa or explosives, since, in pronouncing vowels most of which have vierta-prayatna, air completely escapes and in pronouncing explosives which have spysta-prayatna, there is complete contact. between the tongue and the other organs of speech so that air is completely arrested in its 'passage, and in pronouncing y, r, l, v, which have isat-sprsta-prayatna, there is only slight contact between the tongue and the vocal organs so, that most of the air freely passes and in pronouncing \$, \$, \$, which have isad-vivrtaprayatua, air is allowed to escape with friction. The difference between semi-vowels and fricatives lies only in the fact that there is less prevention in the former and greater prevention in the latter; but both agree in the point, that in pronouncing them air does not completely escape as in the case of vowels, nor is it completely arrested in its passage as in the case of explosives. Hence the author of Tolkappiyam has, in my opinion, included y, r, l, v, l and l under one category and called them italy el_{l} thin. But it is surprising that the authors of Hakkanavilakkam and

(T. M. V. p. 23.)

^{).} Melleluttaiyum valleluttaiyum nöhka-t täm itai-nikaraväy olittalämum. (1. V. 7, Comm.)

Valleluttukkan munnum an-v-avarrirk-inamatta melleluttukkal an-v-avarrin-pingumäki valikhappattana. Av-v-iruntu nökki-yattatu itai-nikaranaväy-elittat ariya-p-patämaiyin atu-parri itaiveluttukkal av-v-iru-kürrirkum-penyaikappattuna.

Tolkäppiya-mular-cüttira-virutti who seem to have had considerable knowledge of Sanskrit have gone wrong in this point.

But Dr. Caldwell has rightly translated itaiyeluttic as semi-vowels.

1.44. The Dravidian Law of the Convertibility of Surds and Sonants:—This theory is explained by Dr. Caldwell in p. 138 as follows:- There are distinct traces of the existence of this law in all the Dravidian dialects but it is most systematically and most fully developed in Tamil and Malayalam. The law as apparent in the Tamil-Malayalam system of sounds is as follows:—k, t, t, p, the first unaspirated consonants of the first, third, fourth and fifth vargas are always pronounced as tennes or surds $(i, e_i, us k, l, t, \phi)$ at the beginning of words, and whenever they are doubled. The same consonants are always pronounced as medials or sonants $(i, e_0, as g, d, d, b)$ when single in the middle of words. sonant cannot commence a word, neither is a surd admissible in the middle, except when doubled; and so imperative is this law and so strictly is it adhered to, that when words are borrowed from languages in which a different principle prevails, as Sanskrit or English, the consonants of those words change from sonants to surds, or vice-varsa according to their position -e, g, danta (Skt. a looth) becomes in Tamil, tandam; bhāgya (Skt. happiness) becomes in Tamil, pākkiyam. This rule applies also to the case of compounds. The first consonant of the second word, though it was a surd when it stood independent, is regarded as a sonant when it becomes a medial letter in a compound word. This difference is marked in Telugu by a difference in character which is employed: -e.g. annadammula (for annatamunilu) eider and younger brother; kottabağu (for kottapadu), to be beaten; but in Tamil and generally in Malayalam, the difference appears in the promunciation alone. This rule applies to all compounds in Telugu; but in Tamil, when the words stand in a case-relation to one another, or when the first is governed by the second, the initial surd of the second word is not softened, but doubled and hardened, in token of its activity:e.g. instead of kottabadu, to be beaten, it prefers to say kotta(φ)-In dvandva compounds Tamil agrees with Telugu.

A similar rule applies to the pronunciation of ch or \tilde{c} (the Tamil 5) the first consonant of the second varga. When single, it is pronounced as a soft weak sibilant, with a sound midway between s, sh and ch. This pronunciation is unchanged in the middle of words and in all cases in which the letter is single; but when it is doubled, it is pronounced exactly like cheh or $\ell\ell$. The principle involved in this instance is the same as in the cases previously mentioned, but the operation of the rule is in some degree different. The difference consists in the pronunciation of this consonant in the beginning of a word, as well as in the middle as a sonant, i.e. as s. By theory it should be pronounced as ch at the beginning of a word-and it is worthy of notice that it always receives this pronunciation at the beginning of a word in vulgar, colloquial Tamil; and in Malayalam and Telugu it is written as well as pronounced ch. A somewhat similar rule prevails with respect to rough r of the Tamil which is pronounced as τ when single and like tlr when doubled.

The Tamilian rule which requires the same consonant to be pronounced as k in one position and as g in another, as f, f, p in one position and as g, g, g, g in another is not a mere dialectic peculiarity, the gradual result of circumstances, or a modern refinement invented by grammarians, but is essentially inherent in the language, and has been a characteristic principle of it from the beginning.

'The Tamil characters were borrowed, I conceive, from the earlier Sanskrit, and the language of the Tamilians was committed to writing on or soon after the arrival of the first colony of Brahmans, probably several centuries before the Christian Era. Yet even at that early period the Tamil alphabet was arranged in such a manner as to embody the peculiar Dravidian Law of the Convertibility of Surds and Sonants. The Tamil alphabet systematically passed by the sonants of the Sanskrit, and adopted

The Rev. Dr. Pope and M. J. Vinson state the same theory with a slight modification, the former in page 7 of his Tamil Hand Book and the latter in page 65‡ of Journal Asiatique Dixieme serie Tome 18 1911.

the surds alone, considering one character as sufficient for the expression of both classes of sounds. This circumstance clearly proves that *ab initio* the Dravidian phonetic system, as represented in Tamil, its most ancient expenses, differed essentially from that of Sanskrit'.

Here we have to examine (1) whether this law holds good for Tamil language from the earliest times or in Dr. Caldwell's words whether it is essentially inherent in the language, and has been a characterisitic principle of it from the beginning; (2) whether it is found most systematically and most fully developed in Tamil; (3) whether there was an imperative law that a sonant cannot commence a word, and that a surd is inadmissible in the middle of a word except when doubled; and (4) whether the Tamil alphabet systematically passed by the sonants of the Sanskrit, and adopted the surds alone, considering one character as sufficient for the expression of both classes of sounds.

 Whether it is essentially inherent in the language:— Tolkappiyanar, the author of the earliest extant grammar of the Tamil language, says in the first sutra

Elutteya-p paţupa
Akara-mutal
Nakara v-iguvây muppak t-cupa
Cârntu-varan marapin mūyr-alah baţaiyê (Tol. E. 1.)

that there are thirty primary eluttu from a to a and three secondary eluttu, and in the second sutra,

Avaitām Kuzriya l-ikaram kuzriya l-ukaram Āytam-eņra Muppār puļļiyu m-eļuttā r-aņņa. (Tol. E. 2.)

that the three secondary elutth are kngrival-ikaram, kngrival-ukaram and bylam which are denoted in script with dots. Does the word elutth here denote sound or symbol? It evidently means sound for the following reasons:—(a) In the third satra

Avarrul A i u

Eo engu m-appā t-aintum Or-aļa p-icaikkun kugyeļut t-enpa. (Tol. E. 3.)

he says \cdot of them n, i, n, e and o sound one matra and are called $knrreln tt\hat{u}$: in the fourth satra,

A 1 12

E ai

Oan engu m-appā l-ēļum

Îr-ala p-icaikku nettelul t-enpa. (Tol. E. 4.)

the next seven θ , i, θ , θ , σi , θ and σii sound two matras and are called nettelettii; in the eighth,

Aukāra v-izuvāy-p

Panni r-sluttu m-wyir-ena molipa. (Tol. E. 8.) the twelve from a to an are called nyir; in the ninth,

Nakāra s-ituvāy-p

Patinen n-cluttu mey-y-ena molipa. (Tol. E. 9.)

the last eighteen eletts with y at the end are called mey; in the tenth,

Mey-y-ō ţ-iyaiyin m-uyir-iya ririyā. (Tol. E. 10.) the nature of the vowel is not changed even when pronounced after a consonant; in the eleventh,

Mey-y-i n-alane y-arai-y-ena molipa. (Tol. E. 11.) the quantity of a consonant is half a matra; in the nineteenth, Vallelut t-enpa ka-ca-ta ta-pa-ya. (Tol. E. 19.)

k, c, l, t, p, r are vallefully or voiceless consonant; in the twentieth,

Meilelut t-enpa na-na-na na-ma-na. (Tel. E. 20.), \hat{n} , \hat{n} , n, n, n, m, n are mellelutth or nasals; and in the twentyfirst,

Ifai-y-elut t-enpa ya-ra-la- va-la-la. (Tol. E. 21.)
y, r, l, v, l, l are itaiyeluttu or semi-vowels. In all these sutras, eluttu cannot but mean sound; for symbols cannot have quantity nor can they be classified as val-l-inam, mel-l-inam and itai-y-inam. Besides, in the whole Nūnmarapu, the first section in Eluttatikāram of Tolkāppiyam, he makes mention of words like uruvu (form) and iyarkai (nature) wherever he wants to denote symbols e.g. in the fifteenth sūtra,

Mey-y-i u-iyarkai pulli-y-olii nilaiyal. (Tol. E. 15.) he says that the iyarkai or nature of the consonant is to be indicated by dots; in the sixteenth sutra,

Ekara okara-t t-iyarkai-y-u m-arrê. (Tol. E. 16.)

he says that the *iyagkai* or nature of e and o is the same; he says in the 14th sûtra

Ut peru pulli y-uruvă kum-m- ℓ . (Tol. E. 14). that a dot within is its uruvu or form (of shortened m); the same is the case for vowel-consonants in the sutra

Puļļi y-illā v-eltā meyyum Uru-v-uru v-ūki y-akarama ţ-uyirtlalum Ēṇai y-nyirō t-urum-tirin t-uyirtlalum Ā-y-ī r-iyala v-uyirtla t-ārē (Tol. E. 17.).

If then dutti denotes sound, could Tolkappiyanar who is so careful as to note the difference in the quantity and the nature between i and i (shortened i), n and \hat{n} and who shows from his work especially the sections dealing with the classification and production of speech sounds intimate knowledge of Sanskrit Prātišākhyas and Pāņiņi's grammar where it is clearly stated that the voiced consonants are produced when the kantha is closed (i.e.) when the vocal chords are very close to each other and voiceless when kantha is open (1.c.) when the vocal chords are far away from each other (cf. Tai. P. ii, # & 5), have failed to denote the difference between the voiceless consonants k, c, t, t, p and voiced consonants g, j, d, d and b and mentioned them as vallinam? If the voiced sounds g, j, d, d, and b were in existence then, could be have stated that the number of primary sounds was only thirty? Hence it is clear that at the time of Tolkäppiyanar the voiced consonant sounds did not exist in the Tamil Language. Hence Dr. Caldwell's statement "this peculiarity is essentially inherent in the language and has been a characteristic principle of it from the beginning' cannot stand.

The author of Viracoliyam and its commentator say that in adbhava words the consonant k is substituted for the four

Sanskrit consonants k, kh, g and gk.¹ This would not have been the case if g had already existed. All other grammarians including the Rev. Beschi say that there are only thirty or thirty-one primary sounds.

But what Dr. Caldwell says is found in the spoken Tamil of the modern days. What might be the reason for this? Is it due to the general phonological principle that voiceless consonants are made voiced when they are found between vowels or preceded by nasals; or is it due to the fact that the Sanskrit words like naga and vandana were written in Tamil script as nakam (pain) and vantanam (winsards) but pronounced as nagam and vandanam as in Sanskrit and then the same letters a and a began to be pronounced under such conditions even in pure Tamil words as g and d. e. g. (pain) agam and (ping) tandai? It does not seem to be reasonable to accept the former alternative, because even now in Jaffna, such voiceless consonants are pronounced as voiceless and not voiced. Hence it becomes necessary to accept the second alternative.

- 2. Whether it is found most systematically and most fully developed in Tamil:—Since I have shown that voiced consonants were absent from Tamil language in the earliest times, it is evident that they were not developed in Tamil. (Even in Malayalam there is difference in pronunciation between anka and anga though 'k' in anka is slightly voiced.
- 3. Whether there was an imperative law that a sonant cannot commence a word, neither is a surd admissible in the middle except when doubled:—Since I have proved that the voiced consonants were absent from the early Tamil language, and since no grammarian from Tolkappiyanar to Civañana-munivar has stated

Ka-ca-ţa-ta-pa-v-en pavarro vvonraiyê kiţappinum, urappiyum eţuttum, kanaittum, mukkinum aintuvitamāka-c-collappaţu kinra aintu varkkaihaţinum munpaţaiya-k-kiţappinār collappaţukinra vonrinkannê y-atan pinnê ninra münreluttum aţair kum, (V, Tat, 6, Comm.)

Muntiya-rarkkankul-aintinu-mun-m-ng-ng-ng-in mung-aqaiskum.
 (V. Tat. 6.)

this, it need not be discussed. But so far as the spoken Tamil of the modern days is concerned it holds good.

In this context it deserves to be mentioned that Dr. Caldwell and some modern scholars of Tamil seem to think that it is absolutely necessary to have the voiced consonants after the nasal of the same class1 and the sonant or spirant between vowels and it is difficult to pronounce them otherwise, i.e., takkai, pañcam, pantam and remtan should be pronounced as tangai, panjam, pandam and vanday and akam, icai, atai, atu, tapu as aham or agam, isai, adai, adu and tabu. This view appears to be unsustainable. For, as Vendryes points out in his Language2, "Difficulty and ease of pronunciation are purely relative conception, doubtless quite definite to the speaker, but variable for each language. We cannot appreciate them without a thorough knowledge of the structure of the language. In fact the articulatory habits are at the root of the difficulty, so that a sound group which one people find difficult to pronounce may be quite easy for a neighbouring people.".

The following table will show that there are examples in Telugu, Kanarese, Malayalam and Tulu where voiceless consonants are found after pasals and between yowels:—

Telugu.	Kanapese.	Malayalam.	Tulu	Tamil.
(a) inku konki vanki hänke ance	vanki kāke añce	សោះពីន	añcal añci (thither)	iñen (to dry up) kekki (hook) vańki (armiei) käńkai (heai) ańcal ańki (there)

^{1.} D. C. G. p. 142.

Cf. p. 60—Language by Vendryes translated by Paul Radin,
 Ph. D.

Telugu.	Kanarese.	Malayalam.	Tulu.	Tamil.
kanta (seeing)	1			kanta (having
, 2,	unin (there			untie
	is)			10.5
enta	enta (eight) enta (of			ettie
(how much)				enta (what)
(110 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	kantu (to go			kantú (to he
	down)			spoiled)
impu	sun þin			inpit (sweat- ness)
		kāmpa		kāmpii (stalk)
(b) āţa	ātike	āļnka		Attan (plan)
kāpu	kāpu	- ašuvu	kāţu	āṭṭām (play) kāppā (protec- tion)
atuka	Dir.			atukhu
(loft in a	AMI J			
house)		100		
	ifnekkee			itrekkis
	(narrów- ness)		ikara	inkë
	110,00)	-	(here)	4 FF/0-9

The initial c in catti is pronounced not as \hat{s} in Tulu, but as citself.

This clearly shows that there need be no hard and fast rule that the consonants that follow nasals or that are between vowels should become voiced in the Dravidian languages. But, at the same time, examples like knight (to sink) by the side of knight (to sink) and idi (this) in Telugu, adu (to play) and paga (enmity). in Kanarese, tdu (pledge) and unde (globe) in Tulu are found. This shows that there was a tendency in those languages to pronounce the voiceless consonants that followed masals or that were between two vowels, as voiced. Since old Malayalam is almost Tamil, I have not given many examples from Malayalam here.

This change may have been due to the natural tendency of the people if we are able to find out such examples at a time when those languages were not influenced by Sanskrit. But, as far as we know at present, the carliest work in Telugu found out till now is said to be the Bhāratam by Nannaya which roughly belongs to the early part of the 11th century and the earliest inscription happens to be that of Kubja Viṣṇuvardhana of the 6th century. The earliest work in Kanarese that has been found out till now is the Kavirājamārga written about the 9th century, and the earliest reliable inscription, it is believed, does not go earlier than 6th century A. D.

During the 7th century we have Tevarani and Nalayirappirapantam which clearly show the great influence of Sanskrit on Tamil. Hence it is more probable for the change to have crept into Tamil through analogy with the sounds of the borrowed words in Tamil written in Tamil characters.

4. Whether one character was sufficient to express both classes of sounds;—Dr. Caldwell assumes that the Tamil alphabet was introduced after the advent of the Sanskritists, who found one character sufficient to express both classes of sounds. If that he so, why should they have invented new symbols to express voiced consonants g, j, d, d and b in Grantha script which they should have invented after the Tamils began to learn Sanskrit and in which almost all the symbols of the Tamil language, which, according to Gopinatha Rao, were adapted from Brahmi script, were incorporated? Hence at the time when the Tamil script was newly invented, it did not have the voiced consonant sounds.

Therefore Dr. Caldwell's theory of Convertibility of Surds and Sonants can hold good only with reference to the spoken Tamil of the present day.

1.45. C and f according to Dr. Caldwell:—Dr. Caldwell says that the pronunciation of c is not f but c in the lowest colloquial dialect and it is probably the ancient pronunciation of this letter which is retained by the lower classes. Even the higher classes in Tinnevelly pronounce it even now as c and reference to the

sûtras on Numarapu of Tolkappiyam mentioned above can clearly explain that his conjecture that it was the ancient pronunciation is really true.

As regards 'j' Dr. Caldwell says that "it is not used in correct Tamil; the same sound is sometimes admitted in the use of those Sanskrit derivatives in which the letter 'j' is found in Sanskrit". But in the spoken dialects of Tanjore, Trichinopoly, etc., it is freely used in pure Tamil words. Thus mañcaļ is pronounced as mañjaļ, kañci as kañji, etc.

1.46. A point about the cerebral consonants in Tamil and Sanskrit:—Dr. Caldwell says that 'Sanskrit has borrowed them from Dravidian languages for the following reasons:—(1) The lingual consonants are essential component elements of a large number of primitive Dravidian roots. (2) None of the lingual consonants has ever been discovered in any of the primitive languages which are related to Sanskrit. (3) Those consonants which Tamil has borrowed from Sanskrit within the period of existence of Dravidian literature have been greatly modified to accord with the Tamilian laws of sound and delicacy of ear. (4) Though Telugu has been more exposed to Sanskrit influence than Tamil, yet larger use is made of those sounds in Tamil than in Telugu'. (C. D. G. 148.)

Dr. Caldwell may be said to be right as regards his first two reasons. The third reason adduced by him seems to me not quite satisfactory; for Tamil evidently has to substitute some sounds for those of Sanskrit which are not found in it as th. d. dh. The fourth is not after all a very strong reason. Besides, there are four other points that stand in the way of accepting his theory:—
(1) The cerebral sounds in Sanskrit are produced by rounding the tongue and making it touch the roof of the palate, while in Tamil they were produced by the tip of the tongue touching the front of the palate without its being rounded at the time of Tolkäppiyanår, though they are now pronounced exactly in the same way as in Sanskrit. If they had been borrowed by Sanskrit from Tamil, I do not know why the position of their articulation was changed. (2) Besides, they are found in Rgvēda, the earliest

religious work in Sanskrit which is supposed to have been composed in the Indus Valley soon after the Aryans migrated there. (3) It has been enunciated by Fortunatov that r+dental remains unchanged, but in combination of I and a following dental, the I disappeared, and the dental was lingualised. Dr. C. G. Uhlenbeck and other philologists except Brugman agree with his theory! and hence think that the cerebrals are a natural development, Jesperson too agrees with the same theory from another standpoint as is seen from his following statement: "According to a theory which is very widely accepted, the Dravidian languages exerted a different influence on the Aryan languages when the Arvans first set foot on Indian soil, in making them adopt the excuminal (or inverted) sounds $d_1 t$, n with dh, th which were not found in primitive Aryan. But even this theory does not seem to be quite proof against objections. It is easy to admit that natives accustomed to one place of articulation of their d, t, n will unconsciously produce the d, t, n of a new language they are learning in the same place; but then they will do it everywhere. Here, however, both Dravidian and Sanskrit possess pure dental d, t, n pronounced with the tip of the tongue touching the upper teeth, besides cacuminal d, t, u, in which it touches the gum or the front part of the hard palate. In Sanskrit we find that the cacuminal articulation occurs only under very definite conditions, chiefly under the influence of 'r'. Now, a trilled tongue-point 'r' in most languages, for purely physiological reasons which are easily accounted for, tends to be pronounced further back than ordinary dentals; and it is therefore quite natural that it should spontaneously exercise an influence on neighbouring dentals by drawing them back to its own point of articulation. This may have happened in India quite independently of the occurrence of the same sounds in other vernaculars?

Sanskrit Phonetics (English Edition by Dr. C. G. Uhlenbeck, section 44, p. 53).

It is worthy to be noted that it has already been mentioned that the Tamil t and n were not originally cacuminal but alveolar.

just as we find the same influence very pronouncedly in Swedish and in East Norwegian where d, t, n, s are cacuminal (supra-dental) in such words as bord, kort, barn, etc. According to Grandgent (Naure Sprachen, 2, 447) d in his own American English is pronounced further back than elsewhere before and after 'r' as in dry, hard; but in none of these cases need we conjure up an extinct native population to account for a perfectly natural development.

From what has been mentioned above it may not be possible for us to accept the statement of M. J. Vinson that the cerebrals in the Aryan Languages of the north have been developed relatively at a recent date².

- 1.47. Secondary consonant: 1.471. Ancient period: According to Tolkäppivanär there is no secondary consonant.
- 1.472. Medieval period: The author of Viracoliyam does not mention any secondary consonant. The author of Neminatam says that there are 16 secondary consonants consisting of 6 shortened voiceless consonants, 6 shortened nasals and shortened y, shortened l, shortened v and shortened l. The author of Nanguil says that there are 42 orgalapetais and three shortened m⁴, each of the former having one matra and each of the latter having 1 of a matras. Wherever two similar consonants come together for the sake of metre as the two 'l's in 'koll legging

Language, Its Nature, Development and Origin by Otto Jespersen, p. 196-7.

R cerebral En Dravidien, pp. 111 to 123. Journal Asiatique, Onzieme Seric Tome XIII, 1919.

Na-ña-na na-ma-na va-ya-ta-la v-āytam Alapān kwrit-inai kwrig-kā l-iţai-kaţai Mikatā y-avayrin kwri-y-ām vērē. (Na. 92.)

^{4.} Na-na mwy-n-um va&kān micai-yu-ma-k-huruhum. (ibid. 96.)

Münyü-nyiralapü irantām neţil onyë
Kurilötü ai-au-k kurukkam oyralapü
Arai ayrū-i u-k kurukkam öytam
Kāl kural mahkān āytam māttirai, (ibid, 99.)

maruppup pāngaņa' (they are like the horns of war-bulls) (P.N. 4, 4), he takes them as one secondary sound having one full mātrā. As regards the shortened m, as in pānn he divides it into three according to the consonant which precedes or follows it, which is not quite necessary. ci. 1.222 supra.

1.473. Modern period: The author of Hakkanavilakkam says that there are 11 orgalapetai and one makara-k-kurukkam and agrees with Nannülär as regards their quantity. Civañanamunivar agrees with Tolkappiyanar.

Though Tolkāppiyaṇār mentions shortened m and says it has a of a mātrāl, he has not mentioned it as a secondary consonant since it does not satisfy his definition of cārpeluttu, Cf. 1.22. supra. Orgalapetai is only two similar consonants placed side by side for the sake of metre. Hence he has not mentioned it as a secondary consonant. The opinion of Tolkāppiyaṇār seems to be sound.

1.48. Initial, Final and Medial consonants in Tamil and Sanskrit words—Their Similarilies and Dissimilarities:—Tolkäppiyanär says that, in Tamil, a conjunct consonant cannot stand at the beginning of a word², k, t, n, p, m can stand initially being followed by any vowel³, c except when followed by a, ai and an^4 , v except when followed by n, \bar{u} , o and \bar{o}^5 , n when followed by \bar{a} , c and a^6 and g when followed only by

Arai-y-aţapă kurukun makara m-aţaittê leat-y-iţa n-arukun teriyan kălai, (To), E. 13.)

^{2.} Uyir-meş y-allana məli-muta l-ākā. (ibid. 60.)

Ka-ta-na pa-ma-v-etyu m-ū-v-ain-t-e[uttum Ellā v-ayirotuñ cellumār mutalz. (ibid. 61.)

Cakara k kilaniyu m-avayyō r-ayyō
 A-zi ou-v-enu mūnyalan kataiyē. (ihid, 62.)

Ue ob vernou nänknyir
 Va en n-eluttotu varuta l-illai. (ibid. 63.)

Āe
 O-enu mū-v-uyir ñakūrat t-uriya, (ibid. 64.)

 \bar{a}^{1} . Similarly, the only constnants that can stand as the final member are \bar{a} , η , u, w, η , y, r, l, v, \underline{l} and l^{2} .

As regards the initial consonants, the author of Viracoliyam slightly differs from Tolkāppiyaṇār. He allows \tilde{n} when followed by 'a' also, allows c when followed by all vowels and allows y when followed by a, b, u, \tilde{u} , \tilde{v} and au^2 . The author of Naṇṇūl agrees with the author of Viracoliyam and adds \tilde{n} also to the list⁴ and one of its commentators gives $a\tilde{m}ianam$ as an example of the same; but $\tilde{n}anam$ does not seem to occur as a separate word in literature.

Besides it is said that all consonants except r and \underline{l} can be followed by the same consonants. Some of them may also be followed by other consonants. For instance \underline{t} can be followed

- Ā.v-ē ţ-allatā yakara mutalātū. (ibid. 65.)
- Na na na ma na ya ra-la va la la la vennum A-t-pati p-opre pulli p-iruti. (ibid. 78.)
- Panni r-uyirum ka-ta-ta-na pa-mu-wi-ya
 Na-ha-v-i r-aintuyir mey-y-u moli-mutal. (Na. 102.)
- 6 Āvi ña-ņa-na-ma-ņa ya-ra-la-va la-ţa-me; Cāyu m-ukara nājāgu m-īgē. (Na. 107.)
- Mey-n-nilai cuțți n-ellă v-cluțțum
 Tam-muț răm-varăum ra-la-v-alan hațaiyă, (Tol. E. 30.)

by k, c and p; \underline{r} by k, c and p; l by k, c, p, y and v; \bar{u} by k; \bar{u} by c and y; \bar{u} by t, k, c, \bar{u} , p, m, y and v; n by t and y; m by p, y and v; n by q, k, c, \bar{u} , p, m, y and v; v by q; y, r, and \underline{l} by k, c, l, n, p, m, v, \bar{n} , q and \bar{n}^{l} .

Here it may be noted that $Rgv\bar{e}da$ Prātiśākhya similarly gives a list showing the sounds in Sanskrit that can respectively stand as the initial and final members of single words and also those consonants which can follow other consonants:—The second and fourth of each varga, semi-vowels, fricatives except visarga and aspirate and the second varga do not stand as the final members of words². The Atharvavěda Prātišākhya allows l also as the final³. When we compare this with the final sounds at the end of words in Tamil, we see that, of the sounds common to both the tongues Tamil allows \bar{n}, y, r, l, v and l as finals, while Sanskrit does not and that Sanskrit allows l, l, l, l, and p which Tamil does not.

Similarly the Rgvēda Prātišākhya says that jihvāmālīya, upadhmānīya, visarga, annsvēra jh,* ñ, ţ, ţh, ф, ḍh, ŋ cannot

1. Ta-ya-la-la v-ennam pulli mannar-k
Ka-ca-pa v-ennam pulli mannar-k
Averral
La-la-kān mannar ya-va-v-un tönrum. (ibid. 24.)
Na-ña-na-ma-na-v-v-unm pulli mannar-t
Tatta m-isaikal-ottana nilaiyē. (ibid. 25.)
Averral
Na-na-kān mannar-k
Ka-ca-ña-pa ma-ya-v-a-v-v-lu m-uriya. (ibid. 26.)
Na-na-ma-va v-ennam pulli mannar
Ya-kā nirran mey-per y-anyē. (ibid. 27.)
Ma-kān pulli-mun va-v-un tönyum. (ibid. 28.)
Ya-va-la v-ennam pulli mannar
Mutalā k-eluttu inakarametā tönyum. (ibid. 9.

Üşmäntakıtharıöşma-caküravargü nüntam yüntyanyatra visarjaniyar. (R. V. P. 12. 1.)

^{3.} A. V. P. I. 5.

Classical Sanskrit allows jh as an initial member, cl. jhaqiji.

stand as initial members of words!. But Tamil allows # as in the words #ālam, #ant# as the initial member.

Again the same Prātišākhya says that, in the middle of words, the second, third and fourth sounds of the five vargas are not followed by the same sounds. But this may appear to be wrong since such words as $lajj\bar{a}$, $majj\bar{a}$ are found in classical Sanskrit. But it seems they are not found in Rgycda. l is not followed by r^s ; v is not followed by the first four sounds of each of the five vargas, but is preceded by them⁴; the fricatives are not followed by r^s ; l does not follow an explosive²; r is not followed by l or explosives, but is preceded by them⁸.

Here the points to be noted are the following:—Tamil allows all explosives except t and n after y while Sanskrit does not. On the other hand, Tamil does not allow y after the stops, while Sanskrit allows it. But both Sanskrit and Tamil agree in not allowing r to be followed by r, t to be followed by r and v to be followed by k, c, t, t and p.

It seems to me that Tolkāppiyanār has followed the Prātišākhyas here also as in the case of mentioning initial and final vowels.

1.5. Secondary sounds which are classed by Tamil grammarians neither as vowels nor as consonants:—1.51. Ancient period: Tolkāppiyaṇār mentions āytam as a secondary sound but does not say whether it is a vowel or a consonant.

Bhāra-ţhārāu paramardhamānmanām nādini takārād-avarē ta tapta. (R. V. P. 12, 2.)

Vānyēna madhyamāli sparšavargāli saņīyujyantē.
 (ibid. 12. 3.)

^{3.} Na lakārēņa rephah. (ibid. 12, 4.)

^{4.} Spursair-vakārā na parair-anuttamaih. (ibid. 12, 5.)

^{5.} Tathā tēṣām ghāṣiṇaḥ sarvathāṣmabhih. (ibid. 12, 6,)

^{6.} Na rapho raphana. (ibid, 12, 8.)

^{7.} Na sparšūir ūsmā prathamah parascan, (ibid. 12, 10.)

^{8.} Lakāra-sparšāir na yakāra uttaraiķ. (ibid. 12, 14

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1.52. Medieval period:—The author of Viracoliyam mentions none in this category. The author of Nominatam mentions 217 secondary sounds under this category consisting of 216 vowel-consonants and one 'shortened aylam'. The author of Nappūl adds the unsbortened aylam to the above list, and he divides it into eight. I think it would have been much better if he had divided it into six according as it is succeeded by one of t, c, f, t, p and r without adding two more as a in asti and astatiya where it evidently precedes one of the above six consonants.

- 1.53. Modern period.—The author of Ilakkanavilakkam agrees with Nannülär except in discarding the shortened äytam, on the authority of Tolkäppiyanär who has not stated that the äytam, which is substituted for l and l in the sandhi al+liqui= asginai and mul+litii=mus.fitii, is shortened.
- 1.54. It has already been mentioned in 1.222 supra that it is a mistake to have included vowel-consonants among secondary sounds and that they are not at all unitary sounds. As regards the shortened artam, I fully agree with the author of llakkanavilakkam. Hence of the secondary sounds which are classed by the Tamil grammarians neither as vowels nor as consonants that which is to be dealt with here is only aytam.
- 1.55. 'Aytam':—1. 551. In the ancient period it appears that this was not included in the alphabet between vowels and consonants, since Tolkappiyanar says in the first sutra 'Akara mutal nakaraviguray (elutin) mappalon pa' (which means thirty letters from a to n) and mentions aytum in the second sutra. But in the medieval period, it was included between them as it is now, since the author of Viracoljiyam says so.
- Dr. Caldwell has written it along with the vowels and mentions in page 355 that it is a sort of guttural'; but whether it is a vowel or a consonant or neither must be carefully considered.
- 1.552. Ancient period:—Tolkāppiyaŋār says that āytam is one of the secondary sounds and appears in the middle of words

Arinta-v-eluttam-mun pannirantārika lūna-kam-mun Pinata-patinettū me;-mutū-v-āptam...... (V. C. 1.)

after a short vowel and before a voiceless consonant followed by a vowel³, and also its place of production is determined by that of the consonant in whose company it is². It is classed by him neither as a vowel nor as a consonant. This is perhaps due to Pāṇini not having classed jihvāmūlīya or npadhmānīya as a vowel or a consonant.

1.553. Medieval and Modern periods:-Neminatam says that it is one of the 31 primary sounds³; but this is wrong. In Nannul, the grammar of the medieval period and in Hakkanavilakkam of the modern periods it is said to be an open sound and its place of production is the head5. This is quite contrary to what is said in Tolkappiyam. How can it be an open sound? Its pronunciation is just like that of the spirant filtramative in kah karôti when it is followed by k, and the spirant neadhonaniva in kalı phalati when it is followed by p. In Tamil it can come even before c, t, t and T which is not the case in Sanskrit, must be pronounced by allowing the air to reach that part of the vocal organs where the following consonant is produced and suddenly arresting it so that a part of the air may escape with friction as in the case of fricatives. Hence Tolkappiyanar says that its place of articulation is that of the letter in whose company it is. This must evidently be the consonant that follows it. This statement is almost similar to what is said in the Taittiriya Pratišākhya as regards š, s, s, h, jihvāmūlīya and nhadhmānīya".

Kuçiyatan munna r-āyta-p pulţi
 Uyiraţū puņaruta-val lāyan micaitti. (Tol. F. 33.)

Cārntu-vati ŋ-allatū tamakkiyal pila-c-eŋat
 Tērntu-veļi p paţutta v-ēṇai mūŋyun
 Tattaū tārpiy piyappaţu civani
 Otta kāţciyir yam-m-iyal p-iyalum. (ibid, 101.)

3. Avi y-akara-muta l-ārirantā m-āytam-iţai Mēvum...... (N. N. E. 1.)

^{4.} Aytunen eleaiyi y ankan tiyatum. (1, V. 13.)

^{5.} Aytak kişan-talai y-airkā muyarci. (Na. 87.)

^{6.} cf. Uttare asta üşmanak. (R. V. P. i. 12.)

^{7.} Pare sad asmanah. (Tai, P. i, 9.) and Sparsasthanesn asmana

Thus in pronouncing a in eakin, kaarin, muafihi, aatin, aapõtam, kaarītin, the air must respectively be allowed to reach the soft palate, middle of the hard palate, the front portion of the hard palate, the teeth, the lips and the top of the hard palate. This is also borne out by the fact that it is replaced by a consonant similar to its succeeding consonant; muafitin is changed to muttitin, kaarītin to karrītin, erupātin+oprin to orupattogrin, and so on. Besides, one can see from cuphony in the expression kārra-k-koārēr (Pattu. 236, 633) a cannot be guttural, but only a spirant produced where r is produced. It is therefore a kind of arrested voiceless spirant resembling in its sound the first part of the affricate reversed and hence it was not in the ancient and medieval periods a guttural as Dr. Caldwell thinks, nor is it an open sound produced at the head as many of the grammarians of the medieval and modern periods thinks.

But it is now pronounced in all cases in the same way as if it were before 'k'. It is evident however that it does not conform to etymology; for it is not generally possible to have a guttural spirant or fricative before a palatal, cerebral, dental or labial consonant. The forms mn = it and ka = it are respectively formed by the combination of two words mn! + it and kal + it in the former case the initial l of it is correspondingly changed to it by being assimilated to it. Can the sound assimilated to a cerebral be a guttural? Similarly in the latter case the

ānupārvyēņa. (Tai. P. 2 +4.) and Jihvāmūlijah kavargasthānē upadhmūnī jah pavargasthūnē. (Tai. P. 2, 44, Comm.)

Āyta nilaiyalum varai-nilai y-iŋyē
 Takaram varūun hūlai y-āṇa. (Tol. E. 400.)

Takaram varuvali y-āyta nilaiyalum Pakarin ţ-nmanār pulamai yōrē. (ibid. 370.)

Orupa& tāci-mup n-ongu-mula l-onpān
Ennu m avai-y-ūr pigavu m-ejtin
Āyta m-aliyav-ān ţākun ta-v-ē. (Na. 196.)

^{4.} Ayta-k k-iţan-talai y-ankā muyarci
(Na. 87.)

initial l of litis is changed to cerebral \underline{r} by the influence of the preceding l and consequently l is changed to A by being assimilated to \underline{r} ; nowhere is a guttural seen in Tamil words before \underline{r} .

I cannot definitely find out how and when this unetymological pronunciation of & came into existence. But I may say that it may have come after the 8th or 9th century A. D., since the word iydeludit for isdeludi is found in line 152 of the Vēļvikudi Grant published in Epigraphica Indica, Vol. XVII Part VII which shows that & before d was pronounced like y at that time. It the dental spirant is carelessly pronounced, it may almost resemble 'y'. But since in most of the simple words where it occurs it is followed by the guttural, possibly the guttural sound was generalised throughout?. Owing to this modern pronunciation of &, one symbol 'k' is being used by the Tamil Lexicon of the Madras University?

Another point deserves to be noted as regards the origin of aylam. It is not found in Telugu and Canarese, nor in pure

2. uskum askaram askal aski askān askān aski aski istā eskum eski kasii kasii Compound words like musitītā, kasijītā, etc.

3. Its definition in the Tanil Lexicon of the University of Madras that it is 'the 13th letter of the Tamil alphabet occurring only after a short initial letter and before a hard consonant as askiam, and pronounced sometimes as a vowel and sometimes as a consonant is defective in two ways:—'after a short initial letter' must be changed to 'after a short vowel'; 'and pronounced sometimes as a vowel and sometimes as a consonant' must be changed to 'and is a fricative; but mentioned by the Tamil Grammarians neither as a vowel not as a consonant'. Hence Dr. Beschi's statement 'āytam-engatu iţukuri-p-peyar, mutaleluttu muppetin ongallatu-vērāy nigralānum nyirpāla-t tanittoli-pātumāy meypāla nyir-ērapperātumā)' mutal-eluttāntanmai cytāmaiyā yum iru-maruhbum varum-eluttai cārntolittalānum cārpeluttin ongā-yina' deserves to be noted. (To, V. 15, Comm.)

The word in the grant in Tamil script should be SinGaccon
it think it would have been pronounced then as intellet though it is
transliterated in the Epigraphica Indica as intelled.

Malayāļam words. Even in Tamil it is not an indispensable letter since it can be replaced by its succeeding letter. Besides, its sound before k and p respectively agrees with that of visarga before a guttural and a labial (i.e.) jihvāmālīya and upadhmānīya. Pandit M. Raghava Aiyangar writes in his article on 'Tolkāppiyanārum Pulliyeluttum' in page 153 Vol. XXV of Centamil published by the Tamil Sangam at Madura that in ancient times aytam was represented by visarga. Hence it seems to me that the visarga which is used before a guttural and a labial as jihvāmālīya and upadhmānīya was borrowed from Sanskrit and extended in its use before all the voiceless consonants in Tamil though Dr. Caldwell says that it is a peculiar Tamil letter. (C. D. G. p. 353.)

I am glad to find recently that M. J. Vinson has written in 19161 that the extraordinary form of dylam is related to the visarga of which it is, withot doubt, only an adaptation, though he seems to be confronted with the difficulty from the statement of Tamil grammarians on the authority of Nangul that its origin is in the head and is pronounced with the mouth fully open. This clearly shows that the Tamil Pandits with whom he came in contact with had ignored Tolkappiyam. If they had thought of that work, they would certainly have told the learned professor that its origin depends upon the sounds in whose company it appears (Tol. E. 101) and then he might easily have inferred that, since it follows a vowel and is followed by a voiceless explosive consonant, it could not be a completely open sound. Besides if he had noted that aytam was represented by visarga in earlier days2, it would have strengthened his inference to a considerable extent.

He derives the word aytam from the Sanskrit word aynaha and also states that he did not know any example of aytam out-

Sur un caractere Singulier Dans L'alphabet Tamoul in Journal Asiatique Onzieme Serie Tome VII, 1916, p. 343.

Tolköppiyanārum Pullipeluttum by Pandit M. Raghava. Aiyangar, p. 153, Centamil, Vol. XXV.

side the grammars; the former point is disproved by the opinion of the late Mr. R. Swaminatha Aiyar noted below. As for the latter, many examples are found in Sangam works. cf. pasquļi maņaliņum (P. N. 9, 11.): satiyām iranta paricil astiruļiņ (P. N. 145. 8): eakuru viļuppuņ (P. N. 233. 7.); yānkastuņţeņa (P. N. 319. 4).

Similarly, the Rev. Dr. Pope is of opinion that it may be an imitation of Sanskrit visarga and it is used in poetry only.' (cf. P. H. T. L. p. 13.) But now it is used in prose also. For instance, the word astà and istà are used if they are followed by words commencing with a vowel, as astà inkë illai, etc.

The late Mr. R. Swaminatha Aiyar said in one of his lectures delivered in 1925 under the auspices of the Teachers' Guild, Madras, that there is coincidence between the term cārpēļuttā applied to āytum in Tamil Grammar and the term parākrītān applied to jihvāmālīya and upadhmānīya in Pāṇinīya-šikṣā, and hence the word āytam is the tamilised form of āśrita.

2. SANDHI.

- 2.1. Avoidance of hiatus and assimilation are the leading principles on which the rules of sandhi are based¹¹,
- 2.11. Ancient Period: 2.111. Classification: Tolkappiyanar classifies the nature of sandhi into two kinds, one having change in sounds and the other having no change? The former is of three kinds:—meypiritātal³ or assimilation, mikutal or insertion and kunral or clision⁴ & 5. And the latter is called iyulpū. As regards insertion, it is a peculiarity with Tamil, as Tolkappiyanar
 - M. V. G. 20.
 - 2. Avarçul
 Nigutta celli mārā keļuttoja
 Kuritta-varu kiļavi mutaleļut t-iyaiya-p
 Peyarotā peyarai-p puņarkkun kālum
 Peyarotā tolilai-p puņarkkun kālum
 Tolilotā peyarai-p puņarkkun kālum
 Tolilotā peyarai-p puņarkkun kālum
 Māngā tiripita mongā peiyalpeņa
 Āitkan nānkā molipuna reiyalpē. (Tol. E. 109),
 - 3. Assimilation and substitution are both taken as assimilation.
 - Avaitām
 Meypiņi tūtau mikutal kunņal-enņū
 Invena molipa tiriyu m-ārē. (Tol. F. 110.)
- 5. It seems possible that the classification of sandhi into four and their names are adapted mostly from those found in Prātišākhyas, Meypiritātal, mikutal. knural and iyaipu respectively are close translation of the words vikāra or vernavikāra, ūgama, iāpa and prakīti which are found in the following quotations:—

Varņasya vikāra tāpān (Tai. P. i. 56.) Vināsā tāpah (Tai. P. i. 27.) Aḥkāra āgama vikāri tāpiņām (Tai. p. i. 23.) Tamiti vikāraḥ (S. Y. V. P. i. 133.) says, that the cariyai or the flexional increments are generally inserted between the base of the noun and the case suffix1 on the one hand, and between the verbal base and the verbal termination on the other. He then classifies sandhi into vertumai-p-putareci or case-relation sandhi and alvali-p-putareci or non-case-relation sandhi according as the two words which undergo change in sandhi stand in case-relation to each other or not.2

2.112. Treatment of the same by Tolkāppiyaṇār: He treats in urupiyat the cāriyai or flexional increments that are inserted between the base of the noun and the case-suffix and in the latter half of punariyal, the special changes that take place in sandhi between the final member of the base and the initial member of the flexional increment; in tokai-marapi, he generally deals with the changes which the initial member of the 'following word'?

Tenetyagamah (S. Y. V. P. i, 137.)
Varņasyādaršanam tēpah (S. Y. V. P. i, 141.)
Prakītyā padāntīyah (S. Y. V. P. iii, 90.)
Pragīhyašas prakītyā (A. V. P. iii, 33.)
Prakītyantāh pādamavyaparē (P. 6. 1, 115.)
Adaršanam tēpah (P. 1, 1, 60.)

Lēpēgama varņavikārajītēhi namyāk šabdātī jānāti (M. B. 1 1 15.)
As regards the term kunyai, Tolkāppiyaņār seems to have incorporated the meaning of lēpa as vināša as mentioned in Taittirlya Prātišākhya and not adaršanam as mentioned in Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī or Šukla Yajurvēda Prātišākhya, and as regards meypiyitātai, he has translated the word vikāra or varņavikāra found in Prātišākhyas and not ūdēša mentioned in Pāṇini's sūtras in ādēša pratyayayēb (P. S. 3, 59.).

1. Nigutta collun kugittu-varu kifaviyum Atai-yotu töngunum punar-nilai-k k-uriya, (Tol. E. 111.)

It seems to me that this is due to making the syllable containing the oblique case suffix so heavy that it must be clearly pronounced.

- Vērrumai kuritta puņar-moļi nilaiyum Vērrumai palvaļi-p puņar-moļi nilaiyum Eļuttē cāriyai y-āyiru panpiņ Oļukkai valiya puņarun kālai. (Tol. E. 113.)
- 3. If sandhi takes place between two words, the former is called by Tamil Grammarians, nilaimali and the latter, varumali. I have, in

undergoes, and the final member of the 'standing word,' etc. In nyir-mayankiyal and pulli-mayankiyal he respectively deals with the sandhi which takes place when the final members of the standing words are vowels or consonants. Since kurriyalukaran is a peculiarity of Dravidian languages and the changes that take place in sandhi when the final member of the standing word is a are different from those that take place when it is û, the latter are separately treated in the last section.

When two words, one ending in a vowel and the other beginning with a vowel come together, it is stated that no one is prevented from writing between them an utam-patu-mey or an intervocalic consonant that suits them). This shows that it was not compalsery in his time to insert y, v, etc. between two vowels as it was at the time of the later grammarians. This is borne out by the absence of utampatumey in some places in some inscriptions? & 3. Nor does Tolkäppiyanar state what such utampatumey is.

I will now deal in detail, with (1) the inserted flexional suffixes, (2) the changes in sandhi in such cases. (3) the changes which the initial consonant of the following word undergoes (4) the changes when the final member of the standing word is a vowel other than kurriyalukaram (5) the changes when the final member of the standing word is a consonant and (6) the changes when the final member of the standing word is 'û'.

2.1121. The Inserted flexional suffixes4.

this thesis, translated them literally as standing word and following word respectively.

- Ellä molikku m-nyir-varu valiyë
 Utam-patu mey-y-i y-uruvu-kolul varaiyër, (Tol. E. 141.)
- Note that in the compound mā-irumperum buņur kūviri, there is no nţampaţumey between 'ā' of mā and 'i' of irum. (1, A, Vol. 22 p. 70-M, M. P.)
- 3. Maiar mangai-odu (line 46); pū viri-um (line 93); kāviri-iv (line 93); maņi-imaikhum (line 81) of Ep. I. Vol. XVII, Part VII, V. G.
- The stars dealing with these are found in urapinal-Stars 174-203.

Final Member of the Base. General rule: Flexional increment inserted.

a, û, u, û, ê, au Exceptions:

Exceptions: a in palla

ā of interrogative yā a & ā (of names of trees)

u in atn, itu, utu

 $iy \ (e.g. \ vila + ai = vila - v - iy - ai)$

varru also (e.g. pallavarrai) Do. (e.g. yāvarrai)

attn also (in the 7th case)

an also, when the final n is dropped. (e.g. atn + ai = atn +

ay + ai = atayai)

on (e.g. kō onai)1

in (e.g. tevvinai).

varru (e.g. avarrai)?

General rule: ai of avai, ivai, uva: ai of interrogative yd

ist to E

va<u>rr</u>u also (e.g. avaiya<u>rr</u>ai) Do. (e.g. yūva<u>r</u>rai)

in (c.g. urin + ai = urininai)

i is shortened to i and n is inserted (e.g. ninnai)

ð ñ, n v of av, iv, nv v of ter

General rule:

350

in of wiene

attn and sometimes in. (e.g. maram + ai=marattai; uruminai) no insertion; but m is doubled. (e.g. nnm-m-ai)

m of tăm, năm and yâm

³no insertion; but ā is shortened in the first two cases and yā is changed to a in the third case and m is doubled. (e.g. tammai, nammai, ammai)

m of ellam

varrn when it refers to neuter nouns and nam when it refers to wyartinan, before the casesuffix and num after the casesuffix. (e.g. ellām+ni=ellāvarraiyum or ellāmammaiyum)

^{1.} This is a case where histens is allowed.

^{-2.} av, iv, av are neuter demonstrative plurals.

^{3.} This shows that the accent is possible on the case-suffix.

m of eliarum (3rd person) and of ellirum (2nd person) tam and num respectively; but the final um is taken after casesuffix. (e.g. ellärum + ai = elläriammaiyum, ellirum + ai = ellärunmmaiyum)

n of tān and yān

no increment; but ā is shortened to a, yā is changed to e and y is doubled. (e.g. tayyai, cimai)

 \underline{u} of alan and pulay \underline{l} of $\underline{e}\underline{l}$

attu or in an (e.g. članai)¹

General rule:

ù Exceptions:

in (e.g. nākiņai)

û following a long vowel

generally no insertion; but the final consonant is doubled. (e.g. yūṭi + ai = yūṭṭai: sometimes yūṭṭṇai also.)

ii at the end of words denoting any (e.g. ouranat.) number.

й in orupastů, irupastů, etc. - äy, and astů is dropped. (e.g. orupāyai)

u of yūtu, astu, istu & ustu. an, but s is dropped (e.g. yūta-

it at the end of words denoting No insertion; but 'ii' with the directions before the seventh preceding consonant is droppedse-suffix, ed. (e.g. vajakkii+kan=vatakkan)

In the last sutra he says that, if other increments are used in literature, we will have to take them also.

2.1122. The changes which the flexional increments undergo in Sandhi;2

(a) i of $i\underline{n}$ is optionally dropped after \bar{a} . (e.g. $\bar{a}+i\underline{n}\div ai=\bar{a}\underline{n}ai$; also $\bar{a}vi\underline{n}ai$.)

The original #\(\text{l}\) meaning seven is now pronounced by adding that the end as #\(\text{l}\)\(\text{u}\), although the cannot follow \(\text{l}\) according to Tol.
 36.

The sūtras under this heading are all found in panariya? of Tolkāppiyam (121, 123 to 127, 129 to 132 and 134).

(b) v of varru is dropped after avai, ivai, avai. (e.g. avai + varru + ai = avai-y-arrai.)

(c) n of in is changed to r before kn, the fourth case-suffix.

(e.g. vija-v-iy-ku=vijavijkit.)

- (d) n of an is changed to r when it is preceded by a word denoting star and is followed by a word beginning with a voiceless consonant. (e.g. parani+an+kontan = parani-y-ar-kontan)
- (c) a of atta is dropped after a. (e.g. makam + atta + kai = maka + atta + kai = makatta + kai.)
- (f) i of ikku is dropped after i and ai (e.g. āṭikku-k-koṇjāṇ;
 cittiraikku-k-koṇjāṇ)
- (g) ku of akku is dropped if it is followed by a voiceless consonant (e.g. tamil + akku + hūtti = tamil-ak-kūtti)
- (h) m of am is assimilated to \hat{n} , \hat{n} and n when it is respectively followed by h, c, and t.
- (i) m of am is dropped if it is followed by a nasal or a semi-vowel. (e.g. pulivañera)
 - is is dropped before the case suffix in.
- (k) The consonant preceding attn and varyn is dropped and that which follows is doubled if it is a voiceless consonant. (e.g. halam + attn + kurai = halattn-k-kurai.)
- 2.1123. The Changes which the initial consonant of the following word undergoes.
- $^{1}(a)$ t and n which follow l and y are respectively changed to r and y (e.g. $kal + tit\hat{n} = kax\underline{r}it\hat{n}$; $poy + nav\underline{r}\hat{n} = poynav\underline{r}\hat{n}$, etc.)
- $\vec{r}(b)$ t and n which follow \vec{n} and \vec{l} are respectively changed to t and \vec{n} . (e.g. $man+tit\hat{n}=manfit\hat{n}$; $man+nant\hat{n}=manfant\hat{n}$, etc.)
- 2.1124. The Changes when the final member of the Standing word is a vowel other than '\u00e4',\u00e3.

La-na vena-varëum pulli munnar-t Tana vena-varir ra-na-v-ā kum-m-ē. (To). E. 150.)

^{2.} Na fa-v-en puffi-mun şa-na-v-eya-t idoğum. (ibid. 151)

The sūtras under this heading are found in upirmayahkiyal of Tolkāppiyam (sūtras 204 to 296),

Final member of the standing word.	Initial member of the following soord,	Change in sandhi.
	· A *	
Non-case-relation sandh	i:	
a (of nouns)	k, c , t , p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. vija+ kuritū=vija-k-kuritū.)
a (of verbal participles particles denoting comparison, ega and āṅka and demonstra- tive roots)	i	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. a-k-ker- ran.)
a (demonstrative root)	A, 11, 221	 n, m are respectively inserted (e.g. a-ñ-ñāṇ.)
Do.	y, ¥	r is inserted (e.g. $a + ya\underline{l}$ = $a - v - ya\underline{l}$.)
Do.	any vowel	v is inserted (e.g. $a + ilai= a \cdot v \cdot vilai)$
Do.	Do.	u is also lengthened in verse (e.g. a 4 instinai- yum= a-y-instinaryum
Case-relation sandhi;	L 400	
4	h, c, f, p	 k, ι, t, p are respectively inserted.
a (of names of trees)	do.	n, n, n, m are respectively inserted, (e. g. viļa + kēţù = viļankūţū)
a (of maka, the name of a tree.)	á do.	The flexional increment is or attu is inserted. (e.g. m a k a + k a i = makavinkai or makattukhai.)
	· Ä '	
Non-case-relation sand)	ķī;	
ā (of nouns)	k, c, t, p	k, t, l, f are respectively inserted. (e.g. tārā-k- kaptā.)
ē (of verbal participles)	do.	Do. (c. g. инна-с-сен- хан.)

ā (of nouns when com- pounded with another noun in unmaittekai or dvanda compound)	k, c, l, fr	¹ a with one of k, c, t, f is respectively inserted. (e.g. irā-a-p-pakal.)
Case-relation-sandhi:	do.	k, c, l, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. tārā + kāl = tārā-k-kāl etc.)
ā (in words whose vowei provious to the final ā is short or in words of one syllable.)	do.	² a with one of k, c, t, p is respectively inserted (e.g. pala-a-k-kōfii.)
Exceptions: ā (at nilā)	do.	The flexional increment attu is inserted. (e.g. nilā + keņtān = nilā + attu + keņtān =
ā (of írā)	do.	nilāttukkontān.) Only k, c, t, p are respec- tively inserted. (e. g. irā + kontān = irā-k- kontān.)
ā (of the word ā)	pī L	p is inserted and the final i is shortened to i . (e.g. $\bar{a} + p\bar{i} = appi$.)
Cose-relation sandhi:	.1.	
í	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. kili+ kāl=kili-k-kāl.)
i (of vaļi, paņi (season))	do.	Flexional increments attn & in are inserted.
i (of nti (tree))	do.	 n, n, m are respectively inserted.
i (of puli (tree))	do.	Flexional increment am is inserted.

^{1 &}amp; 2. These are cases where histus is allowed; but some Tamilians seem to think that the a after ā denotes that ā has 3 mātrās and as such is not a separate sound; but here in this satra the expression akaramikumā' is found. Here mikum shows that it is a separate sound according to Tolkāppiyanār. But now a and ā are pronounced only as ā3.

i (of puli (not denoting tree))	k, c , t , p	k, c, t, p or n, n, n, m are respectively insert- ed.
f (at the end of words denoting star)	do. of verbs.	Flexional increment āṇ is inserted, (e.g. paranı + kontāṇ = parani-āṇ + kontāṇ = parani-y-ār-kontāṇ.)
 (at the end of words denoting month) 	do.	Plexional increment ikku is inserted. (e.g. āṭi+ koṇṭāṇ = āṭi+ ikku+ koṇṭāṇ = āṭikku-k-koṇṭāṇ.)
Non-case-relation sandhi:	:	
 i (of iţi, aţı, verbal participle, and de- monstrative root) 	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted, (e. g. ini+ kontan=inv-k-kontan,)
i (of i <u>m</u> ri, verbal partici- ple)	in verse	tehanges to u. (e.g. up- pingupurkai where in- ru is found for ingi.)
i (of demonstrative)	4, n, m	 n, n, m are respectively inserted.
D_0	y, v, & any vowel.	v is inserted. (e.g. $i=$ $yal=i-v-yal$.)
	11	

 \bar{I} (both in non-case-relation sandhi and in case-relation sandhi) agrees with the final \bar{a} .

Exceptions:

k, c, l, p No change. (e.g. m + knrivai = mknrivai, etc.) i (of mi)

Do. No change, or k, c, l, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. mi + kol = mikol or mikol or mikkol, etc.)

This change of i to w may be due to the influence of the initial w in uppu or w in purhai, in which case this is an illustration of harmonic sequence of vowels.

i (of ni when it takes k, c, t, p i is shortened, n is integrated after it. (e.g. ni + kai = nlnkai.)

· 61

In non-case-relation sandhi it mostly agrees with the final a with the following exceptions:—When atn, itn and utn are followed by verbs beginning with k, c, t, p, it has no change; but when followed by agrit in verse, u of atn, etc., is changed to \bar{a} . (e.g. $at\bar{a}agranma$.)

Even in case-relation sandhi, it mostly agrees with the final a with the following exception:—When aln, iln and nln are followed by k, c, t, p, the flexional increment in is inserted.

 $\cdot ar{U}'$

Both in case-relation sandhi and non-case-relation sandhi a agrees with d, *i.e.*, if it is followed by k, c, t, p, one of them is inserted.

Exceptions:

- (a) When its preceding vowel is short or when it is the final of a single-syllabled word, u is inserted in addition to one of k, c, t, p. (c. g. $u \nmid \bar{u} + kur_{\bar{u}} = u \nmid \bar{u} k kur_{\bar{u}}$.)
- (b) After û in the word ρũ, the nasal also is optionally inserted. (e.g. ρũ-k-koți and ρũ-ń-koţi.)
- (ε) After ā in āṭān and mahaṭān, the flexional increment
 in is optionally added. (e.g. āṭān-v-in-kai.)

Initial member of Final member of the Gange in standing word the following word. sandhi. 4 B 1 e (at the end of verbs of k, c, l, p k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. 2nd person) e (at the end of nouns Do. No change, (e. g. čekonadded for emphasis) tan.) (Er General rule:

General rate: \bar{e} (both in case-relation k, c, t, p k, c, t, p are respectively and non-case-relation inserted. (e.g. $c\bar{e}+ka$ -sandhi) $it\bar{m}=c\bar{e}-k$ -kațită, etc.)

Eucaldinas		
Exceptions: ē (at the end of nouns to denote negation, interrogation, num- ber)	k, c, t, p	No change, (e.g. yanë- kontën in the sense yankontilën, etc.)
ē (of the word cē denot- ing a tree)	\mathbf{D}_0 .	Corresponding nasal is inserted. (e.g. cērikōṭii.)
ë (of the word eë denot- ing pe <u>rr</u> am)	Do.	Flexional increment in is inserted. (e.g. cē-v-ig-kōtú.)
	* AI *	in a series of
Case-relation Sandhi:		
ai (at the end of nouns)	k, c, t, p	 k, c, l, p are respectively inserted. (c, g, yāŋai + kōţû = yāŋai-k-kōţû, etc.)
Exceptions:		
ai (at the end of words paṇai, arai, āvirai)	Do.	Flexional increment am is inserted. (e.g. pana) + kdy = panai + am + kdy = panankdy.)
at (at the end of panal followed by the word atta)	, and	ai changes to āa. (e.g. panāaṭṭu.)
ai (at the end of the word majai)	Do.	attu is inserted, (e. g. malai-y-attu-k-kontan.)
ai (at the end of words denoting month and star)	Do.	Flexional increment ikku is inserted. (e.g. citti- rai + kontān = cittiraik- ku-k-kontān.)
	40"	
Non-case-relation Sandhi:		
ō (at the end of nouns)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. 0-k-ka(iti.)
 at the end of nouns denoting negation, interrogation or doubt) 	Do.	No change.
δ (in case - relation sandhi)	Do.	o and one of k, c, l, p are inserted. (e.g. B-o-k- kalumai.)

No change, (e.g. kō-vō (followed by the word 21) il, kö-y-il.) Flexional increment on ā (at the end of some k, c, 1, p words in literature) is inserted. (e. g. kūon-kai,) · AU' an (both in case-relation k, c, t, pn and one of k, c, t, ϕ are inserted, (e. g. sandhi and non-casekan + katith = kanv-nrelation sandhi) k-katitu.) The Changes when the Final Member of the Standing word is a Consonant.2 Final Member of the Initial Member of Change in standing word the following word Sandhi Nasa Corresponding masal is: h, c, 1, b. substituted. fe.

> yā or ñā. No change. (e. g. maņ 4-yātta = maṇyātta, eic.)

etc.)

Generally dropped. (e. g. kōļ + naŋṛù = kō-naŋṛù.)

maram + kuritic = ma-

rankurita.)

Any consonant preceded by a long vowel

11, 11

- 1. Ilamp@rapar gives kopil for the example and Nacciparkkipiyar kopil; but it seems to me that ko-il ought to have been the example referred to by Tolkappiyanar since he uses the word iparkai in the satra and in his opinion (Tol. E. 141) the insertion of utampatumes is only optional.
- The rules noted here are mostly found in Tolkäppiyam, Eluttatikäram, Pullimayankiyal, except the first four which are found in Tokaimarspu, 144, 147, 161.
 - This is a clear case of assimilation.
- This generally happens when the initial member of the following word is a consonant.

Any consonant preceded by a short vowel		The final consonant is doubled. (c. g. pon+ akal=ponnakal.)
N, n, n, m, l, n (of verbal nouns in both kinds of sandhi)	k, c, t, p	² u and one of k, c, t, p are inserted. (e. g. uriñ+kaţitii=uriñ-u- k-kaţitii.)
n, n, n, m, l, p (of verbal nouns in both kinds of sandhi)	\tilde{n} , n , m , γ	³ แ is inserted. (e. g. แร่เห็-แ-พืธิญรถใน.)
# (in case-relation sandhi)	k, c, t, p	Changed to f (e.g. man + hulam = mathulam.)
Exceptions:		
n (of the words an and pen)	Do.	No change. (e.g. ankai.)
# (of an denoting tree)	Do.	Flexional increment and is inserted. (e.g. āṇ.) kōṭù=āṇ-añ-kōṭù.)
# (of an denoting food in non-case-relation sandhi)	Do.	Optionally changes to t (e.g. cn+katitic=ct- katitic)
m (in case-relation sandhi)	k, c; t, p	m is dropped and the succeeding consonant is doubled. (e. g. maram + kōfú=mara-k-kōtú.)
Do.	a or å	m is dropped and the preceding a is optionally lengthened or is followed by intervocalic v. (e.g., maram + ați = marā-ați 4 or maravați.)

^{1.} This generally happens when the initial member of the following word is a vowel.

^{2 &}amp; 3. These may be called cases of epenthesis according to Vendreyes (cf. Language, p. 61) though Brugman gives the same name to a slightly different phenomenon.

^{4.} This is a case of histus; but now as is pronounced like plats in Sanskrit.

ни (in case-relation sandhi)	k. c, t, p	m is dropped and some- times the correspond- ing pasal is inserted instead of k, c, t, p, (e,g. kulam + karai = kulakkarai or kulan- karai.)
ne (in non-case-relation sandhi)	Do.	 is changed to the nasal corresponding to k, ε, t, p. (e. g. maram + kuritū = marankuri-tū.)
m (of äyiram)	word denoting number	m is dropped and attu is inserted. (e.g. āyiram + onrū = āyirattonrū.)
m (of äyiram)	word denoting measure and weight beginning with k, c, l, p	m is dropped and k, c, l, p are doubled. (e. g. dyiram + pāṇai = āyi- ra-p-pāṇai.)
m (of num)	k, c, t, p	i m is dropped and the masal corresponding to k _t , c, t _t , p is inserted. (e.g. num + kai = nuh-kai.)
NI	ž,	måtrå. (e. g. nilam+ valitü=ullamvalitu.)
m (of words denoting star)	k, ε, t, p	m is dropped and attu- and an are inserted. (e.g. makam + kontan = makattarkontan.)
	e M *	
n (in case-relation sandhi)		changed to y. (e.g. pon- kuṭam = porkuṭam.)
p (of words man, cin ān, in, mun, pin o verbal participle)		changed to r. (e. g. pin kontān=pirkontān.)

I. This is may be otherwise stated that w is assimilated to k, c, t, p.

n (of avvayin, ivvayin, uvvayin, cvvayin)	k, c , t , p	changed to r
n (of min)	Do.	Optionally changed to r. (e. g. minkontān or mirkontān.)
n (of tēn)	Do.	 (1) No change; (2) n is changed to r; (3) n is dropped and the following consonant is doubled; or
		(4) nasal is inserted. (e. g. tēņķuṭam, tēķkuṭam or tēnku-ţam.)
ii (of words min, pin, pan and kan)	De.	n and k, c, t, p are inserted. (e. g. minnu-k-kaṭumai.)
n (of the word cātlan) the name of a person)	tantai (de- noting re- lationship)	'¹taŋ of câttaŋ is dropped, (e. g. câttaŋ + tantai = câttantai.)
n (of the words dian and phlan)	Do.	² Do, (e.g. ātaņ + tantai = āntai).
y (of tây, pêy, kôy) tant re	ai (denoting lationship)	No change. (e.g. tān + tautai = tānrantai.)
n (of ដែក, yan in case- relation sandhi)	k, c, t, p	tān is changed to tan and yān to en. (e.g. tān+ai=tannai, yān +ai=ennai.)
n (of tân, yān in non- case-relation sandhi)	Do.	No change.
n (of muy)	iţ	* r is inserted, (e. g. mnnrd.)

^{1 &}amp; 2. These are cases of haplology.

^{3.} Though 'n' does not change here, 't' of the following word changes to 'r.'

^{4.} Here the words it and muy are first of all interchanged. This may be taken as a case of metathesis of whole words,

g (of alau)	k_i c, l_i p	n is dropped and the succeeding consonant is doubled, (e.g. alan- kutam=alakkutam.)
	* Y '	
y (in case-relation san- dhi)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted, and in some cases û, ñ, u, m are also respectively inserted. (e. g. nāy + kāl=nāykkāl; vēy + kurai=vēykkurai, vēyūkurai.)
Exceptions:		
y (of the word lay)	Do.	No change. (e.g. tāykai)
y (of the word tay pre- ceded by maken)	Do,	k, c, l, p are respectively inserted. (e. g. makan- rāykkalām.)
Non-case-velation Sandhi:	mamoa7	27.0
y ,	Do.	No change. (c. g. nây- kaţitii)
	· R '	
r (in case-relation sam- dhi)	k, ϵ, t, p	 k, t, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. tēr+kāl = tērkkāl.)
r (in non-case-relation sandhi)	Do.	No change.
r (of words ar, vetir, car and pir)	Do.	 n, n, m are respective- ly inserted.
r (of cār)	k of kā <u>l</u>	k is inserted. (e.g. cārk- kāl.)
r (of plr)	k, c, l, f	Flexional increment am is inserted. (e.g., für + köţü = pūr-an-köţü.)
	* L '	
I (in case-relation san- dbi)	k, c, t, p	l is changed to r. (e. g. kal + kurai = karkurai.)
Do.	ន់, តី, ព, ខា	l is changed to n. (e. g. kal+muri=kanmuri.)

l (in non-case-relation sandhi)	k, c, t, p	Either no change or <i>l</i> is changed to <i>r</i> . (e. g. $kal + kurit\hat{u} = kalkurit\hat{u}$ or $karkuritu$.)
Do.	1	l is optionally changed to a when t is changed to r. (e.g. kal + tith = kaarith or karrith)
 I (of nel, cel, kel and cel in non-case-relation smdhi) 	k, c, I, f	I is changed to \underline{r} .
I (of iI denoting nega- tion)	Do.	k, c, l, p are optionally inserted with ai or a before it; or no change. (e. g. il + korron=illaikkorran; il-tākkorran; illatkorran; cn+il+kunam=ennil-kunam.)
l (of val)	Do.	n with one of k, c, l, p is respectively inserted. (e. g. val + katitita vallu-k-katitita)
l (of val followed by nay and palakai)		a alone or a and p are inserted. (e.g. vallanty; valla-p-palakai.)
I (of pal)	k, c, t, p	Flexional increment am is inserted, (e.g. pūl + kūţū = pūlankōţū.)
I (of psyil)	Do.	altu is inserted,
	· 17 4	
v (of an, iv, uv)	k, c, t, p	<pre>varru is inserted. (e. g. av + kôţû = av-varru- kōţû = avarrukkōţû.)</pre>
v (of non-case-relation sandhi)	Do.	r is changed to a (e.g. av + kajiya = aakajiya.)
ar	พี, ก, พู	 n, m are respectively inserted.
T/	semi-vowels or vowels.	No change.

v (of lev)	k, c, 1, p	u with one of k, c, t, p is respectively inserted (e. g. tev+katitii=ten-v-n-b-katitii,)
	$\ell L ^{2}$,
! (in case-relation sandhi)	k, c, f, p	k , c , t , p are respectively inserted. (e. g. $p\vec{u}l + k\vec{a}l = p\vec{u}l \cdot k \cdot k\vec{a}l$.)
l (of the word $l\bar{a}l$)	h of the word $k\bar{u}l$	akkā is inserted. (e. g. tāļakkāl.)
! (of the word tamil)	k, c, t, p	akki is inserted. (e.g., tamil + küttü=tamil- akküttü.)
į (of the word ∱āį)	Do.	k, c, l, p or h, h, n, m are respectively insert- ed. (e.g. pāl-t-kinarii, pāl-h-kinarii.)
₫ (of ₹₹)	Do.	m is inserted. (ēl+kā- yam=ēļankāyam)
(of ēl when followed by words denoting measure and weight)	-	ē is shortened to e and n is inserted after <u>f</u> . (e.g. c[n-kalam)
l (of āl when followed by āyiram)	_	tonly \$\vec{e}\$ is shortened to \$\vec{e}\$. (c. g. \$\vec{e}l + \vec{a}yiram.= \vec{e}l \vec{a}yiram.)
 t (of ēt when followed by nūrāyiram) 		No change. (e.g. êlmîr- eyiram.)
t (of êt when followed by tâmarai, veltam, âmpal denoting num- ber)		No change.
<u>l</u>	Vowels.	No change.
ℓ (of kīℓ)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are optionally inserted. (e.g. kilkulam or kilkkulam.)
(in case-relation san- dhi)	k, c, 1, p	<pre>į is changed to į. (e. g. mu! + kurai = mu!- kurai.)</pre>

In Modern Tamil, ¿lāyiram is used instead of ¿lāyiram. But on the other hand, ¿lunūyū is used instead of ¿laūyū.

l (in case-relation sandhi)	\bar{u}, u, m	is changed to p. (e. g. mul+ maram=mun- maram.)1
! (in non-case-relation sandhi)	k, c, t, p	Either no change or is changed to t. (e. g. mul-kalitu or mut-katitu.)
Do.	ŧ	is also changed to a while t is changed to t. (e.g. mul+titu=mua-titu; also muttitu.)
! (of the word iru!)	k, c, t, p	attu is inserted. (e. g. irnatinkkontān.)
į (of pul and val)	Do.	n and one of k, c, t, p respectively are insert- ed. (e. g. pullukkaţitů etc.)
2.1126. The changes	when the fi	nal member of the standing
Non-case-relation sandhits.	0.00000	200
ů,	k, c, l, p	No change, (e. g. nākū- kaṭitū.)
Exceptions:	4	200
i (at the end of words like! kokki, pākki, where there is doubling of consonant in the middle)	Do.	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. kokkû + kaţitû = kokku-k-kaţitû.)
û (at the end of words beginning with de- monstrative roots a, i and a lengthened and the interrogative ya) ⁵	Do.	Do. (e. g. $\bar{a}\hat{n}k\hat{n} + kontan$ = $\bar{a}\hat{n}ku$ -k-kontan.)

^{1.} In modern days we find the word mnlmaram also.

^{2.} This is a case of both progressive and regressive assimilation.

^{3.} Allatú kilappi n-ella moliyuñ Collina panpi z-iyaçkai y-ākum. (Tol. E. 426.)

^{4.} Vallerru-t lotar-meli valleluttu mikume, (ibid. 427.)

Cuttu-c-cioni nitiza megrotor moliyum Yā-vinā mutaliya mengotur moliyum Ā-y-iya ririyā valleļut tiyarkai. (ibid. 428).

is (at the end of words beginning with interrogative ya) I

Case-relation sandhi:

n (at the end of words with² a single long vowel or with two or more vowels other than n in the word)

n (at the end of words with a conjunct consonant or & in the

middle)

it⁴ (at the end of words having a double voiceless consonant in the middle or a voiceless consonant preceded by a like nasal)⁴ k, c, t, p Optionally no change. (c. g. yāńkú-koṇṭāṇ)

Do. k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e, g. yāṭù + kāl=yāṭṭù-k-kōl; vara-kh + cɛṭi = varakù-c-cɛṭi.)

Do. No change, (e.g. telkű-kät or vakú-käl.)

k, c, t, p

k, c, t, p are inserted respectively; in the second case, the voiced consonant in the middle is optionally made voiceless.(e.g. kokkū-k-kāl; kurakkū-k-kāl.)

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it (at the end of words)
denoting trees)

T

 $k_{r} v_{r} t_{r} p$

is changed to i. (e. g.
 nāku + yātu = nākiyātu.

Flexional increment am is inserted. (e. g. teṅkū + kūy = tēkkaṅkūy).7

- Yā-viŋā maļiyā y-iyaipu m-ākum, (ibid, +29.)
- Iceluttu moliya m-uyir-t-toţar moliyam Vēşrumai y-öpi n-orritat y-ina-mikat Törram vēnţum valleluttu mikuti. (ibid. 412.)
- Ŋai-y-orga-t totaru m-āyta-t totarum Naţaiyā y-iyala v-eŋmaŋār pulavar. (ibid. 414.)
- Vongoţar moţiyu mengoţar moţiyum
 Vanta valleţut t-oggiţai mikumē
 Melloggu-t teşar-moţi metlog y-ellām
 Vallogg-iguti-kiţai-y-og gākum. (ibid. 415.)
- Yakaram varu-vaļi y-ikaran kuţukum Ukurak kiļavi Invara-i iongārā. (ibid. 411.)
- 6. Mara-p-peyar-k kılavi-k k-amme cariyai, (ibid. 416.)
- 7. In the example tākkaākāy three points are worth noting :—(1) when û of takû is joined with a of am, û is dropped. Whenever û is

ii (of punkie, etc.)1

k, c, t, p

²am is inserted; but the medial masal is not changed to the corresponding voiceless consonant (e. g. punkii + köţii = punkanköţii.)

ii (of aatii, iatii, natii in ³non - case - relation

any vowel

No change.

sandhi)

Do.4

any consonant. & is dropped.

Tolkäppiyanär explains in about 50 sütras the changes which û at the end of Tamil numbers from one to thousand undergoes when it is followed by words denoting number, measure and weight. Here two sütras dealing with the formation of the words tonnärů (ninety) and tolläyiram (nine hundred) are worthnoting. They are—

> Onpā y-okaramicai-t takara mo<u>rr</u>um Muntai y-o<u>rrē nakāra m-iraļļum</u> Paātey kiļavi y-āyta-paka rah-keļa

followed by a vowel, it is dropped. But this rule is not given in kurfiyalukara-p-punariyal. In punariyal there is a satra 'kurriya l-ukaramu
w-arfona molipa' (Tol. E. 106) where the commentator Ilampuranar
says that it allows itself to be absorbed by the succeeding vowel as a
consonant does, but this commentary does not suit well since the consonant sound does not allow itself to be absorbed by the succeeding
vowel. (2) Tšākankāy is now used as tšākāp; this is an illustration of
haplology. (3) The & in tšākāp is the lengthened form of a in trākā;
the lengthening here ought to have been done as compensation for the
loss of the succeeding sounds; the same cannot be said of & in
tšākankāy.

- 1. Meiloppu valiyā mara p-peyaru m-uļavē. (Tol. E. 417.)
- It is worthy of note that y in pupên is not assimilated to k
 and consequently changed to h; but, in modern days, in spoken Tamil
 it is changed to h also.
 - Munn-uşir varum-işa-t t-äyta-p pulli Mannal vönşte m-aivali y-önga. (Tol. E. 424.)
 - Ēņai-muŋ variņē tāṇitai y-iŋgē. (ibid. 425.)

92 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

Niggal vēņļu mukārak kiļavi
Ogriya lakaram gakara m-ākum. (Tol. E. 446.)
Oppān mutaņilai muntu-kiļau taggē
Mūntai y-oggē lakāra m-iraţļum
Nūgeņ kiļavi nakāra mey-keļa
Ū-v-ā v-āku m-iyogkai-t l-eņpa
Āyiţai varuta l-ikāra rakāram
Īgumey keļuttu makara m-oggum. (ibid. 464.)

The former may be translated as follows :-

When on path is combined with pasth, t is inserted before of appath, nn is substituted for n, past is dropped, n is inserted after nn and t of pasth is replaced by r. Hence the form topping. (Here no mention is made of the dropping of path in oppath; but it seems to me that it has been dropped on account of the same word pasth following it.) The latter sutra may be translated as follows:—When oppath is combined with nnrn, t is inserted before o of oppath, t is substituted for t, t of t is dropped, t is replaced by t followed by t and t is replaced by t. Hence t of t is made of the loss of path t in oppath.)

These two sutras clearly show that the derivation of the two words topping and tollayiram was forgotten even at the time of Tolkappiyanar.

In the last but one sûtra of Eluttatikāram, Tolkāppiyaṇār states that the sandhi that takes place between uriccol and a following word, between the two members of paṇṇn-t-tokai and viṇai-t-tokai, and between a word denoting a number and the same word, does not follow the rules already mentioned, and that it must be found out from usage. (e.g. veļ eṇa veļuttatii becomes veļveļuttatii; kariyatii + kutirai becomes karunkutīrai; koṇṇa + yāṇai becomes kol-yāṇai; pāttii + pattii becomes paṇpattii or paṇpattii.)

2.12. Medieval Period: 2.121. The author of Vīra-coliyam explains sandhi in 18 stanzas in Cantippaţalam. Instead of the terms meypiţitātal, mikutal, and kuntal adopted by Tolkāppiyaṇār, he respectively mentions ādēša,tāgama and lōpa.

This clearly shows that he wanted to import terms current in Sanskrit grammar in preference to Tamil terms. He prefers the term ddēša used in Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyi to the term vikāra used in Prāṭiṣākhyas.

He then summarises the general views of Tolkāppiyaṇār in a clumsy fashion so as to suit the verse-form, and adds a few more not found in Tolkāppiyam. The substance of the following sūtras in Ejuttatikāram of Tolkāppiyam is briefly mentioned in the stanzas 14, 16, 17, 19, 20 to 22 and 24 to 28.

Stanza No. in Cantippaţalam of Sūtra No. in Eluttaiikāram.

Viracõliyam.	
1.4	151, 161, 358, 363, 384
16	397, 398
17	367, 368, 150
19	311, 312, 315, 331
20	150, 204, 222, 244, 250, 253
01140	255, 265, 274, 275, 277,
	281, 283, 290
21	415
22	303, 333, 398
24	206, 207, 209, 239, 257
25	82 312, 368, 398,
26	259, 390
27	174 to 203
28	150, 151.

In the 11th stanza he mentions that the negative particle na (of Sanskrit) loses its n before a consonant and it becomes an before a vowel. (cf. na+brāhmaṇaḥ=a-brāhmaṇaḥ; na+indraḥ=anindraḥ.)¹ In the 12th, he mentions gnṇa and uṇdahi letters (as found in Sanskrit) and says that they appear in words having taddhita suffix as caivaṇ. These points found in Sanskrit grammar have no place in a treatise on Tamil grammar. Still he seems to have mentioned them since such Sanskrit words

Cf. nalöjö nañah (P. A. 6.3.73) and tasmānnud aci (P. A. 6.3.
 74).

as are governed by these rules were found in plenty in the Tamil. literature of his time. But all those words like abrāhmana, anindra, ramēšu, šaiva must have been borrowed as they were in Sanskrit. Hence no adequate justification can be found in the strict requirements of Tamil language and grammar for formulating these rules.

In stanza 13 he definitely mentions that, if the standing word ends in i, i or ai, and if the following word commences with a vowel, y is inserted between them; if it is \bar{e}_i either y or \bar{e}_i is inserted and if it is any other vowel, a is inserted. This is evidently an improvement upon Tolkāthiyanar, since the latter has stated only that an utampatumey may be inserted between two vowels (Tol. E. 141) and v is inserted after the demonstrative roots and before vowels as a-v-v-āṭai, i-v-v-āṭai, etc. (Yol. E. 208, 239 & 256.) The author of Viracoliyam may have gone through the literature written before his time and stated this law from the examples available from them, of which some are given below.

- Mani+ampalattul=mani-y-ampalattul (T.A.S. 1.3.4).
- Kumari+in=kumari-y-in (P.N. 6.2). 2.
- Uvavnmati + uruviy = nvavumati-y-uruviy (P.N. 3.1).
- lti + ena = iti-y-ena (P.N. 17.39).
- Puravi + aivarotii = puravi-y-aivarotii (P.N. 2.13).
- Puravi+oţu=puravi-v-otû (P.N. 16.1).

N.B.—But after the demonstrative i only v is inserted. e.g. i + ay = i - v - ay.

1 Tr

- $Ti + alavii = ti \cdot y alavii (K. 747).$
- NI+ākal-vēntinum = nī-y-ākal-vēntinum (P.N. 18.15).
- 3. Ti + nm = ti - y - nm (P.N. 2.4).
- $Ni + \tilde{e} = m!$ -y- \tilde{e} (P.N. 4.13). 4.
- $Ni + \bar{o} = ui + y + \bar{o}$ (P.N. 5.3).

1 Al "

- $Ernmai + anna = ernmai \gamma anna (P.N. 5.1).$
- $Enkuvai + \bar{a}yin = enkuvai y \bar{a}yin \text{ (P.N. 13.1)}.$ 2.

- Ticai + irunāņkum = ticai-y-irunāņkum (P.N. 41.4).
- Tāṇai+um=tāṇai-y-um (P.N. 161.31).
- Mēţamāļikai+eţukka=māţamālikai-y-eţukka

(S.I.I. ii, 521).

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- Tānē+atu=tānē-y-atā (P.N. 5.8),
- Kotuttörë+unți=kotuttörë-y-unți (P.N. 18,20).
- Tâmē + ūriorum = tāmē-y-ūrtorum (P.N. 52,8).
- Cé + ați = cĕ-v-ați (Pattu, 5,62).
- 5. E + urumaññaiyin = e-v-urumaññaiyin (Pattu. 197.84).

Nate.—Only y is inserted in most of the cases; y is rarely inserted.

+ A 1

- Ашта+іvар_атта-к-іvар (Р.N. 18.29).
- Untākiya + nyarmannum = untākiya-v-uyarmannum (P.N. 17.24),
- Neţiya + ennătu = neţiya-v-ennătu (P.N. 47.2).
- 4. $Nilayya + \bar{\epsilon}mamuracam = nilayya v \bar{\epsilon}mamuracam$ (P.N. 3.3).
- Pôla+ôvôtú pôla-v-ôvātú (P.N. 4.19).

· A '

- Vārā + cļavai = vārā-v-aļavai (P.N. 50.6).
- 2. $\bar{A} + \iota n + ku = \bar{a} v i r k \hat{u}$ (K. 1066).
- Tavirā+īkai=tavirā-v-īkai (P.N. 3.5).
- Kalańki + uljam = kalanki v-uljam (Cilap. 4.70).
- 5. $M\bar{a} + \hat{e} = m\bar{a} \cdot v \bar{e}$ (P.N. 4.7).

* II '

- 1. $U + av = u \cdot v av$ (Tol. Col. 162).
- 2. Maru + inri = maru-v-inri (Cilap. 5.39).
- 3. $Valipatu + \bar{\sigma}r = valipatu v \bar{\sigma}r$ (P.N. 10.1).

$q\bar{p}$

1. $T\tilde{u} + \tilde{e} + kulani = t\tilde{u} \cdot v \cdot \tilde{a} \cdot k - kulani$ (P.N. 379.15).

E and o, it has already been stated, are very rare as finals of roots or nouns.

In stanza 15 he mentions that if \underline{t} or \underline{t} is followed by t, it is changed to t and consequently t also is changed to t and in some cases one of the two t's is dropped. This dropping of one of the two f's when the vowel preceding f is short is not mentioned in Tolkappiyam. e.g. arumporul + taruum becomes arumporutar \bar{u}_{im} in Cilap. 24 where l is changed to t and then dropped. I carefully ransacked several works written before his time, but I could not find one example in them where I is changed to t or is dropped. In the first stanza in Kantapuranam, a later work, tikal + tacakkaram becomes tikatatakkaram where [is dropped after changing the succeeding t to t. In Kamparāmāyanam, a work written after Viracolivam kil+ticai becomes kītticai, (Kampar, C. Kataltāvu. 39) where l is changed to t.

In stanza 18, he says that, if \underline{l} is followed by n, \underline{l} is dropped. and u changes to u. e.g. val+nal=vanal. Cl. vanal nunal (Kampar, C. Ürteţu, 75). Similarly he says that, if ! is followed by a voiceless consonant, it is changed to t or n and if it is followed by m, it is changed to n. These points are not found in Tolkāppiyam.

In stanza 23 he says that the adesas of ouru, iranții, müngii, năm, aintu, ăru, el, ettu, on patu, pattu and nuru are respectively oru, or: iru, ir: mu, mū: nāņkā: ai: agu; cļut eņ: onpān ; tou, toy: pan, pant nara, patu, pastu and aviram. This is only a brief summary of the rules in Tolkappiyam dealing with the sandhi of numbers mentioned in kurriyalukara-p-punariyal. One point to be noted here is that he does not indulge in any fanciful derivation of toynari and tollayiram like Tolkanpivanar but explains them as formed out of tol and nurs, and tol and āyiram, though he fancies that tol and nārú are ādēšas of aypatu and pattit in the former and tot and ayiram are the adesas of expairs and nara in the latter.

He has not divided sandhi into the two classes, the caserelation sandhi and the non-case-relation sandhi, as Tolkāppiyanār has done. This is perhaps due to the fact that such a division is not found in Sanskrit Grammar. But considering the points of difference in sandhi between two words in Tamil when the

former is in case-relation with the latter or otherwise, I find it difficult to understand why he has omitted it.

- The author of Neminatam has given 15 stanzas on sandhi of which about 10 are almost identical with Viracôliyam in substance. Three of them contain the same matter as in Tolkāppiyam. He gives like the author of Vīracolivam, the guna and middhi letters applicable to Sanskrit words, but differs from him in his statement that if the standing word ends in \tilde{e}_i only v is inserted if it is followed by a vowel. He gives some more rules, e.g. v of tev is changed to m if it is followed by m.
- 2.123. The author of Nannul has skilfully summarised all the sūtras of Tolkāppiyam on sandhi with the additions mentioned by Hampuranar, the authors of Viracoliyam and Neminatam with reference to pure Tamil words, with slight changes here and there.
- 2.1231. The important points where Nangalar differs from Tolkāppiyaṇār:—(1) Tolkāppiyaṇār says that there is no change in non-case-relation sandhi if the standing word ends in y1; but Nannülär says that if y is preceded by a short vowel and followed by a nasal, the same masal is inserted.² (e.g. $mep + \bar{n}\bar{a}n\bar{\lambda}at\hat{n} =$ mey-n-Aanratu.)
- (2) Tolkäppiyanär says that, if the demonstrative roots are followed by consonants, they are doubled; but Namnular adds the interrogative e also as e-k-korran and also says that if the demonstrative root is lengthened and is followed by a vowel, y but not v, is inserted; this is not mentioned by

Alvați petiă m-iyatpeția malipa, (Tol. E. 362.)

^{2.} En-ma veluttir r-evvakas molikkum Mun-varu ña ma-ma-ya va-k-ka f-iyalbum Kuril-vali y-a-t-tani y-ai-u-notu mun-meli Mikalum-am na-ja-na-ta vali-na-t tiriyum, (Na. 158.)

Ekara viva-mu-t cuttin muntar 3. Upirum pakaram-n m-cytin va-v-v-um Piya-vari n-avaiyam Hibbiy cuttu Nilin yakaram-um iğnyutul neri-y-i. (ibid. 163.) 13

Tołkāppiyaṇār (hough he has used it in his first sūtra in Collatikāram 'd-y-irutiṇatyiṇ icaikkumaṇa collê'.

- (3) Tolkäppiyanär has not definitely stated that it at the end of the standing word is dropped if it is followed by a vowel; Nannulär has definitely stated it. He may have taken it from ljampuranar's commentary on the sutra 'knyriya inkaranın mayrena molipa' (Tol. E. 106).
- (4) Tolkāppiyaṇār states that when the word pala is followed by the same word, the two become palapala, pala-p-pala or parpala. Ilampūraṇar adds the word cila also to that category and continues that when pala and cila are followed by other words also, they optionally lose the final a. (e. g. pala-kalai, pal-kalai: cila-vaļai, cil-vaļai, etc.) Naṇṇūlār agrees with both!
- (5) Tolkäppiyanär says that i of verbal participle ingi is changed to u in verse. Nannälär adds the word angi also.²
- (6) Nannūlār says that, if the word uri is followed by certain words, ya is inserted between them, as uri+uppū=uri-ya-v-uppū: uri+payarū=uri-ya-payarū. This is not mentioned by Tolkāppiyanār or by the author of Viracoliyam.
- (7) Nannûlâr says that there are certain words ending in û which take the flexional increment ai in sandhi. (e.g. pantû+ kâlam= pantaikkâlam; inçû+nâl=irrainâl)⁴. This is not mentioned by Tolkâppiyanâr.
- (8) Nannúlär exactly agrees with the author of Viracoliyam as regards attempatumey or intervocalic consonant, which Tolkappiyanar has not clearly stated.
 - Pala-cila v-epum-ivai tam-mun tām-varin
 Iyalpum mikalum akara m-ēka
 Lakaram zakara m-ākalum piņa-varin
 Akaram vikoppa m-ākalu m-uļa-piņu. (ibid. 170.)
 - Angi y-ingi-yen vinai-y-eñ c-iharam
 Toparpina ţ-ukara m-dy-vari n-iyalpē. (ibid. 173.)
 - Uri-vari nāļiyi n-īgguyir mey-keţa
 Maruvum ţakara m-uriyin valiyē
 Yahara v-uyir-mey-ā m-ēgpana varinē. (ibid. 174.)
 - 4. Ai-y-ir rujai-k-kur rukaram-u m-ufavē. (ibid. 185.)

- (9) Tolkåppiyanår says that, when both the standing word and the following word denote directions, the final \hat{u} with the preceding consonants is dropped, and if the standing word is $terk\hat{u}$, r also is changed to u.\(\text{1}\) (cf. $termerk\hat{u}$.\(\text{1}\) Liampūranar adds under the same sūtra that, even if the following word does not denote direction, the same change takes place (as vafakafal) and also r of $merk\hat{u}$ is changed to t as mel+karai. Nannūlār agrees with the latter.\(\text{2}\)
- (10) Nannülär says that, if teňků is the standing word and kôy is the following word, kô is dropped and e is lengthened.³ (e.g. teňků +kôy=těňkôy.)⁴
- (11) Tolkāppiyaṇār says that, if the word pattū is followed by oṇṛū, mūṇṛū, nāṇkū...eṭṭū, tū of pattū is dropped and the flexional increment in is inserted. (e. g. pattū + oṇṛū = pat-iṇ-oṇṛū, etc.) Iļampūraṇār adds the flexional increment iṛṛu also. Naṇṇūtār agrees with the laiter.
 - Tiripu-zērā kiļappi n-ogrā m-iruti-y-nit
 Ketutal vēntu m-onmanār pulavar
 Orgu-mer tirintu nakāru m-ākun
 Terketā puņarnit kālui y-āna. (Tol. E. 433.)
 - Ticai-y-oţū ticai-y-um pira-v-uñ cēriu
 Nitai-y-iţ ţ-uyir-mey ka-v-oṣṛū ninkatum
 Rokaram ŋa-ta-y-û-t tirital u m-ām-piţa. (Na. 186.)
 - 3. Tenkumin tirruyir mey-ketuh hay-varin. (ibid. 187.)
- This lengthening of the vowel is evidently due to compensating the loss of 'k@'.
 - Ongü-muta l-āka v-eţţa v-içuti
 Ettā v-eŋnum patton muy-variç
 Kuryiya-lukara meyyoţnin keţumē
 Muyra v-ip-varūn m-iranţalaŭ kaţar-y-z. (Tol. E. 434.)
 - Onen-muta tārain t-lipirais köţi
 Ennigai yaţarum piţu-variţ pattin
 Iççuyir mey-keţu-t t-iŋ-ŋ-u m-iççum
 Ērpa t-ērku m-onpath m-inaittē. (Na. 197.)

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- (12) Nannülär says that, if the standing word ends in a consonant other than y and the following word begins with $y\bar{u}$, i is sometimes inscried.\(^1\) (e.g. $v\bar{v}l + ydvau = v\bar{v}liy\bar{u}vau.$ \)^2
- (13) Tolkäppiyanär says that, if the word ckin not denoting a tree is the standing word, it takes after it the flexional increment a, and then the initial voiceless consonant of the following word is doubled.³ (e. g. $ckin + k\bar{a}l = ckin a k k\bar{a}l_+$) [lampūranar adds that, instead of the same voiceless consonant being doubled, the corresponding nasal may be inserted, as $ckin a k k\bar{a}l_-$. Nannūlār agrees with the latter.⁴
- (14) If the standing word ends in y, r or l and the initial member of the following word is k, c, t or p, there is no change in non-case-relation sandhi according to Tolkäppiyanär, and the same consonant may be doubled according to the author of Viracoliyam. Nannülär agrees with the latter.
- (15) Nannülär says that, if the word tev is followed by a word beginning with m, v is changed to m. (e.g. tev + munai temmunai.)⁶ But this is not mentioned by Tolkāppiyaṇār. This, he has adopted from Nēminātam.
- (16) As regards the formation of topping and tollayiram, Nannular agrees with the author of Viracoliyam in substituting
 - Tan-n-oli meş-m-mun ya-n-nari n-ikaram
 Tunnu m-enrû tuninaru m-ularê. (ibid. 206.)
- This insertion of 'j' is perhaps through analogy with the insertion of 'i' when such words as khyūti are tamilised into kiwūti.
 - Ēņai y-ekiņ-ē yakāram varum-ē Valteļut t-iyarkai mikutat vēnţum, (Tol. E. 338.)
 - Maram-al l-ekin-moli y-iyalpun akaram Marava sati-meli mikata m-ākam. (Na. 215.)
 - Ya-ra-la munnar k ka-ca-ta-pa alvali Iyaipu mikatu m-ākum vērrumai Mikatu m-iyatiö t-uraliqium viti-mēt, (Na. 224.)
 - Tev-v-en moliyê tolir peya r-urrê Ma-v-varin vabikan ma-v-uu m-ākum. (ibid. 236.)

nūzii and ūyiram for pattii and nūzii, but agrees with Tolkāppiyaṇār in the method of changing on patii to ton and tol respectively. (cf. Na. 194.)

- 2.13. Modern Period: 2.131. The author of Hakkanavilakkam has given 106 sūtras in sandhi in three chapters. Of them 22 sūtras are identically the same as are found in Tolkāppiyam and 69 as found in Naṇṇūl; nine are adapted from Tolkāppiyam and 4 from Naṇṇūl; two are original.¹
- 2.132. The Rev. C.J. Beschi agrees with all the grammarians regarding the insertion of the intervocalic consonant except in the case of s, after which, he says, y is inserted², while others say that v is inserted. Among the changes in sandhi he includes tiratti which means dirgha-sandhi, guna-sandhi and vrddhisandhi² like the authors of Vîracoliyam and Neminâtam.
- 2,14. Similarities and Dissimilarities between Sanskril and Tamil in Sandhi: 2,141. Similarities: There are 3 points in which Sanskrit sandhi and Tamil sandhi are similar.
- (1) In Sanskrit if the standing word ends in n preceded by a short vowel and is followed by a vowel, n is doubled. (e. g. sugan+išah=sugan-n-išah.) Cl. namā krasvād aci namnn nityam. (P. A. 8.3.32.) Similar is the case in Tamil. e. g. nan+alakiti=kan-n-alakiti. (Tol. E. 161.)
- (2) The final m when followed by a voiceless consonant is changed to the corresponding naszl. e. g. am + kita h = ankitah. Similarly anchah, etc. Ci. mb nusvērah (P.A. 8.3.23.)

They deal with the point that there is no change in sandhi if the standing word is vocative or ends in third or sixth case suffix. As regards sandhi when the standing word is vocative, it seems to me that he has followed similar sandhi in Sanskrit.

Mutalirruyirmoli yöcerpuli, ütai yüriyniyum yavve, marrai yuyirkil vakaram punarum (T. V. 20); tiripali väkkam tirattunāl vikāram, (ibid. 21.)

Irumoliy orumoli yenaccan kirtamāy, nilaimoli yīrguyir ninkalu matanā, tunaimoli mutarkan a ūvātalum neyūtalum, uūāvātatumām. (T. V. 38.)

and anusvārasya yayi para savarņaķ (P. A. 8.4.58). In Tamil also the same is the case in non-case-relation sandhi. (e. g. maram+kurith=marankurith, etc.) (Tol. E. 315.)

- (3) Both in Sanskrit and Tamil, the final letter of the vocative does not generally undergo any change.
- 2.142. Dissimilarities:—(1) As regards sandhi between two vowels in Sanskrit the most important laws are: (a) if a, i, u, τ or l ($\overline{\otimes}$) is followed by a similar vowel, $\bar{a}, \bar{z}, \bar{u}, \tau$ and $\bar{\tau}$ are respectively substituted for both; (b) if a or \bar{u} is followed by i or u short or long, gana letter (i.e.) \bar{e} or \bar{v} is substituted for both: (c) if i, u, τ or l ($\overline{\otimes}$) short or long is followed by a dissimilar vowel, it is changed to the corresponding semi-vowel; (d) if a is followed by \bar{e} or ai and \bar{o} or au, ai and au are respectively substituted for both; (e) if \bar{e} , ai, \bar{v} and au are followed by a vowel, they are changed to ay, ay and au respectively.

None of these laws finds a place in Tamil in any period, except perhaps some of them are used in modern spoken Tamil. In place of these laws, Tamil has the one important law that a semi-vowel may, in the ancient period and must, in the medieval and modern periods, be inserted between two vowels except in the case of it which is dropped.

- (2) Besides, the insertion of flexional increment between the base and the case-suffix as found in Tamil is unknown in Sanskrit.
- (3) The doubling of the initial consonant of the following word when the final of the standing word is a vowel, as in Tamil vild-k-kuriti, is practically unknown in Sanskrit.
- (4) In Sanskrit accented syllables take guna or vrddhi, while, in Tamil, flexional increments are generally added before them.
- (5) Another important difference in sandhi between Tamil and Sanskrit is that, in the former, it is divided into two important classes, the case-relation sandhi and the non-case-relation sandhi, and in the latter, such a classification is not found. Hence it is clear that in Tamil when words have to be combined

in sandhi, one must know before-hand their meaning, which is not necessarily the case in Sanskrit except in the case of the nouns in the vocative case and nouns in dual number. But on the other band, in several respects the internal sandhi differs from the external sandhi in Sanskrit, while in Tamil no difference is generally made in the treatment of sounds in both these varieties of sandhi.

Hence it may be said that the ways in which sandhi takes place in both the languages are so different as to form one of the strong reasons to prove that Tamil and Sanskrit are fundamentally different languages.



3. COL OR PARTS OF SPEECH.

3.1. Definition: - All Tamil grammarians except the author of Viracoliyam and its commentator and the author of Pirayokavivekam define col or word as that which conveys sense.1 This is exactly similar to the statement 'arthali padam' (S.Y.V.P. 3.2.) found in Šukla Yajurvēda Prātišāklıya and also to the statement 'šaktam padam' made by Sanskrit logicians. But the authors of Viracoliyam and Pirayókavívěkam follow Pāṇini's definition suptinantam padam' (P.A. 1.4.14.), since they say that a particle so is added at the end of nouns in the nominative singular and then it is dropped,2 as is done in the case of the nominative singular of neuter nouns in Sanskrit like šuci, madku, etc. and generally of masculine and feminine nouns whose base ends in a consonant like vac, bhiqaj, etc. By so doing they have distorted the perspective through which the linguistic phenomena of the Tamil language should be analysed and evaluated. For, in the Tamil language gender is generally determined by sex, and at no stage grammatical gender was recognised as a category distinct from natural gender.

3.2. Classification:—Parts of speech are, in the opinion of Tolkåppiyanär, Nannülär and the later grammarians, primarily two in number, vis., peyar and vinai, and they would, in a secondary sense, give the dignity of parts of speech to two more categories, vis., ifai-c-col and ari-c-col.³ A striking parallelism is discernible between this classification and that in Yaska's

^{1.} Ellā-s collum porul-kurit taravē. (Tol. Col. 155.)

 ^{...} oranap orutti y-onyi nërisa cu cirkum Alipum-uriya cu, (V.V. 5) & (P.V. p. 12, line 7).

Col-bena-p patupa peyarê vinai-y-en R-ā-y-iran ţ-enpa v-avintici ŋörê. (Tol. Col. 158.) Iţai-c-cor kilovi-y-n m-uriccor kiloviyum Avarru-vali maruikir yöngu m-enpa. (ibid. 159.)

Nirukta 'calvāri padajātāni nāmākhyātē ca upasarganipātāśca' (Y.N. 8.8). As Durgācārya points out,1 the priority given to nāma and ākhyāta indicates their primary importance, while upasarga and nipāta are assigned to a subordinate position.

A somewhat similar classification is also found in Rg-veda Prātiśākhya and Šukla Yajur-veda Prātiśākhya:—

Nēmākkyātam upasargā nipātākcatvāri āhuḥ padajātāni šābdāḥ (R.V.P. 12.5).

Nāmākhyātē pasargani pātāk (S.Y.V.P. 8.44). It would become apparent from what follows in this section that Tolkāppiyanār had perhaps this classification of Nirukta and Prātišākhyas for his model and introduced slight variations. While the first two of the four classes, viz., nāma=peyar-c-col,ākhyātā=viņai-c-col are kept intact, the third and the fourth classes were grouped into one, viz., iţai-c-col and a new fourth classe, uri-c-col, was introduced for the sake of consistency with the Sanskritic model.

^{1.} Atra nāmākhyātayāh pārvam abhidhānam, prādhānyāt aprādhānyāt upasarga-nipātānām pašcāt | Ubhi api nāmākhyātā nipātāpasarganirapēkṣē api satī svam artham brūtaḥ | Na tu upasarganipātānām nāmākhyāta-nirapēkṣāṇām arthā sti l (Durgācāsya's Comm. on, V.N. 8.8.)

Peyar-nilai-k kiţavi kālan töngā
 Tolinilai y-oţţu m-ongalan kaţai-y-ē. (Tol. Col. 70.)
 14

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verb after it¹ and that the case-suffixes are added after it² simply explains *payar*; it does not define it as interpreted by commentators.

Nannülär and later grammarians have, like the abovementioned commentators, adopted this as its definition³ and hence have included numerals⁴ and abstract nouns also under peyar,⁵ though they sometimes use the word nāmam itself in place of peyar,⁶ In Tamil, psyar denotes nouns, pronouns and numerals,⁷

- Poruņmai cuţţal viyaikoţa varutal
 Viŋainilai y-uraittal viŋā v-iţ kērţal
 Paṇpu-kaţa varutal peyar-kaţa varutaleŋ
 R-aŋri y-aŋaittum peyar-p-paya pilai-y-ē. (jbid. 66.)
- Kūriya muyai-y-i n-arupu-nilai tiriyā
 Tīru-peşar-k k-ākū m-syorkaiya v-enpa. (ibid. 69.)
- Iţukuri kāraņa maraţē ţ-ākkan
 Tuţarntu toţil-ala kūlan lēgrā
 Vērrumai-k-k-iţaŋ-āy-t tinai-pā l-iţat-t-aŋrū
 Ērpaņum potu v-u m-ānaŋa peyarē (Na. 275.)
- +. Vinā e-cut t-utanum vēru m-āmporuļ Āti p-urutu-i cuţţanai y-āytam Ong n en n-innana n-ongon peyarē. (ibid. 279.) Munna r-a-v-oţū voruvai ya-v-um Cuţt ru va-v-un kaţ-ţ-iţu moţiyum Ongo t-ennu m-uţţa v-itta Patla citta v-uţa-v-ita pata-cita Innovum patavin peyar-ā kum-m-ā. (ibid. 280.)
- Vinaiyin peyarê puşarkkai vinaiyāl Anaiyum peyarê y-ānşu m-ākum. (ibid. 286.) Pal-vakai-p panpum pakar-peya r-āki Oru-kunam pala-kunan taļuvi-p peyar-vinai Oruvā ceyyuţku uriyana uruccot. (ibid. 442.)
- Paţarkkai viŋai-murru nāmai kurippu
 Perappaţun tinai-pā l-aŋaittu m-ēŋai
 Iţattawar rorumai paŋmai-p pātē. (ibid. 265) and (I, V. 167.)
- It is clear from the expression 'ennu-k-kuri-p-peyar' in Palla pala-cila v-ennum peyarum Uffa v-illa v-ennum peyarum

- 3.212: Classification: 3.2121. Peyar is classified under three heads:—(1) Uyartinai or high caste (2) aarinai or casteless and (3) virami-t-tinai or caste common to both. Tolkappiyanār defines uyartinai as words denoting human beings, and aarinai as words denoting objects other than human beings!. He includes words denoting gods under nyartinai. The author of the Nēminātam includes narakar also under nyartinai. He is followed by Nannūlār. The author of llakkanaviļakkam repeats what is said by Tolkāppiyanār.
- 3.2122. Uyartinni is divided into three pāls, viz., ānpāl, peņpāl and palarpāl. Ānpāl is that which denotes a male, peņpāl, a female and palarpāl, more than one male or female.

Vinni-p-peyar-k kilaviyum panpu-kola peyarum Innittena-k kilakku m-ennu-k-kurip peyarum Oppinikiya peyar-nilai-y-ulappata A-p-pā I-anpatu m-uwaryā r-unna. (Tol. Col. 168.)

that the words oncu, irantu etc., are nouns according to Tolkappiyanar only when they respectively mean one object, two objects, etc.

- Uyartinai y-enmanār mahkat cuṭṭi
 A^bṛṛṇai y-enmanā r-avarala hṛṭṇyō:
 Ā-p-irutinaiyi ŋ-iraikkumana coltā. (Tol. Col. 1.)
- Penmai cuţţion v-uyartinai maruhkin
 Ānmai tirinta peyar-nilai-k kiţuviyum
 Teynañ cuţtiya teyar-nilai-k kiţuviyum
 f-v v-ena v-ariyum-an tan-tamak kilavē
 Uyartinai maruhkir pāt-pirin t-icaikkum, (ibid. 4.)
- Erre tinai-y-iranţum pāl-aintu m-ēl-valuvum Vērrumai y-ettu-u tokui-y-āru-mārrariya Mūnritamun kālanhan mūnru m-iranţi-ţattār Rönra n-uraippatān cal. (N. N. Col. 2.)
- Makkal tevar noraka r-nyartinai Magyusi r-ullavu m-illavu m-akginai. (Nn. 251.)
- Uyartinai yenmanār makkat cuţţē
 Abrinai yenmanār revarata piţavē. (I. V. 162.)
 Teyvamum pēţum-ā m-a-v-v-iru pakutiyum
 I-v-v-ena v-aziyum-an tau-tamak k-ilavē
 Uyartinai marriikir pāt-pirin t-icaikkum. (I. V. 165.)

Similarly assignal is divided into two pals, viz., agrappal and palavinpal. Ograppal is that which denotes one animal other than a human being, or a lifeless object and palavinpal is that which denotes more than one of them. Hence it is evident that gender and number are not taken as separate entities in Tamil language, and that the pal or the gender and number in Tamil nouns are determined more from their meaning than from their sading, though it is generally stated that the ending p^1 denotes masculine singular, p^2 feminine singular, p^2 denotes masculine singular, and as neuter plural. Though the word per-makay ends in p^2 , it is feminine singular; though makkal ends in p^2 , it is epicene plural; though p^2 ends in p^2 , it is epicene plural; though p^2 ends in p^2 , it is epicene plural; though p^2 ends in p^2 , it is common gender singular, and so on.

3.213. Decleusion: 3.2131. General points in Decleusion: 3.21311. Case: There are, in Tamil, 8 cases. The cases from the accusative to the locative were, it seems to me, named after their suffixes by the Tamil grammarians who lived before Tolkappiyanar, as ai-verynmai, opn-verynmai, kn-verynmai, in-verynmai and kan-verynmai, but the vocative

^{1.} Naškā n-ogrā pātās variedt. (Tol. Col. 5.)

^{2.} Laskā porrē makatāu vari cal. (ibid. 6.)

Raškā porrum pakara v-irutiyum Mārai-k kiļaui yum-uļappaţa māŋrum Nēra-t tōŋrum patar-ari cottē. (ibid. 7.)

Opgari kifavi ta-ra-ţa v-ūrnta. Kungiya lukara-t t-iruti y-ākum. (ibid. 8.)

^{5.} It is to be understood that the words musculine singular, feminine singular and neuter singular, gender, do not at all correspond to appal and one appal, times the classification of pal and that of gender are entirely on different bases; but for want of better terms they are used here to denote them.

A ä va-ena varūu m-iguti
 A-p-pān mūngē pala-v-agi coliē, (Tol. Col. 9.)

^{7.} The Tamil word vērgumai seems to be the translation of the Sanskrit word vibbakti.

Iranjā kuvatē
 Ai-y-ena-p peyariya nēgrumai-k kiļave......(Tol. Col. 71.)

was called vili-verrumai from the sense which it conveyed, and the nominative, peyar-vēryumai. Tolkāppivanār, though he adopted the name with veryumai and payar-verruma; for the vocative, and the nominative cases respectively, began to name the cases from the accusative to the locative as irantām vērrumai, mānrām vērrumai, nānkām vērrumai, aintām vērrumai, ārām vērrumai, and elam verruman. This he did, perhaps on the model of Sanskrit grammarians like Pāṇini and his predecessors who called them dvitiyā, iştīyā, caturthī, pañcamī, sasthī and saptamī! respectively. The name viļi-vērrumai corresponds in sense to sambuddhi, the name given by the early Sanskrit grammarians to the vocative singular. Tolkāppiyanār did not change the names of peyar-veryumai and vili-veryumai perhaps because they were not represented by suffixes. On the other hand, Nangūlār began to call viļi-vērrumai, ettām-vērrumai,2 and in modern times beyar-vērrumai also is called mutalverrumai. 5H @1000.2

Mūngā knoutē

Oţu-cţu-p pepariya vēgyumai-k kiļavi...(ibid. 73.)

Nāŋkā knoutē

Ku eṇa-p pepariya vēgyumai-k kiļavi....(ibid. 75.)

Amtā knoutē

Iŋ-ŋa-p pepariya vēgyumai-kiļavi....(ibid. 77.)

Ārā knoutē

Atu-v-eṇa-p pepariya vēgyumai-k kiļavi....(ibid. 79.)

Ēļā knoutē

Kan-ŋ-eŋa-p pepariya vēgyumai-k kiļavi....(ibid. 81.)

- Karmani dvitīyā. (P. A. 2. 3, 2-)
 Kartī-karanayōs tītāyā. (ibid. 18.)
 Caturthī sampradānē. (ibid. 13.)
 Apādānē pañsumī. (ibid. 28.)
 Şuṣṭhī iēṣē. (ibid. 50.)
 Saptamydhikaranē ca. (ibid. 36.)
- Eşta n-urufö y-eytu-peyu rîrrin
 Tiripu kungal mikuta l-iyalpuyal
 Tiripu m-öm poruf paţarkkai y-örei-t
 Tanmuka m-öka-t tān-alai-p paturē. (Na. 303.:

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- 3.21312. Number: Tolkäppiyanär and all the later grammarians have mentioned only two numbers, singular and plural. The plural suffixes may be used, according to them, to denote honorific singular. Dr. Caldwell seems to think that nām is a species of dual² and denotes the speaker and the person spoken to. But it is found used with reference to not only the speaker and the person spoken to, but also a third person or persons standing near them. Hence there does not seem to be adequate justification for treating nām as a species of dual.
- 3.21313. Points of difference in Decleusion between Tamil and Sanskrit: There are four important points to be noted in the decleusion of nouns and pronouns in Tamil where it differs from Sanskrit.
- (1) One suffix in Tamil denotes both gender and number, (except the suffix *kal* added to *wyartinai* nouns in medieval and modern periods which denotes number alone) and another, case; while in Sanskrit, one *pratyaya* denotes gender and another both number and ease.
 - (2) Tamil has no dual number, while Sanskrit has.
- (3) The suffixes of the second, third and seventh cases are added, in Tamil, to the nominative case form and not to the base as is done generally in Sanskrit.
- (4) Cāriyai or flexional increments are added in Tamil between the noun and the case suffixes. They are not ordinarily recognisable in Sanskrit except 4t' which is inserted between the stems ending in a vowel and the genitive plural suffix and the

Iyarpeyar munna r-ārai-k kiļavi
 Palat-k-k-uri y-cļuttin viņai-yatū varumē. (Tol. Col. 270.)
 Oruvaŋ-orutti-y-an rāñ-cirappōţū paltōr-palavai-k
 Karutu-munaiyir kalappana-vērrumai kān-mutal-cu
 Maruvum-ar-ār-arkaļ ūrkaļ-kaļ mār-mutal-vērrumaiyin
 Uruvam-viţi-vēr rumai-y-olitteisku mura-p-parumē. (V. V. 2.)

^{2.} C. D. G. pp. 222, 223;—Two plurals of the pronoun of the first person, one of which includes the party addressed as well as the party of speaker, and which may therefore be considered as a species of dual etc.

instrumental singular suffix, through analogy with the corresponding cases of stems ending in n. (e.g. Rāmā n-ām, Harī-n-ām, Harinā through analogy with ātman-ām, guṇin-ām and guṇuā).

On the other hand, in the graded declensions in Sanskrit, stems exhibit different grades of vowel-variation. Such vowel-variations are not generally found in Tamil except to some extent in the declension of pronouns. (e. g. nom, nammai; tan, tannai, etc.)

3.2132. Case-suffixes; 3.21321. Case-suffixes from the first to the seventh are the following:

Ancient period,	Medieval Period.1	Modern Period.
1st Case No suffix	No suffix	No suffix
2nd case ai	ai	ai
3rd case oặu (âŋ also)²	ofu, ofu, āl, ān	otu, otu, al, an
4th case hu	kи	kш
5th case in	in, il	im, il
		inum (Beschi)
6th case atu (if the following word is aarinai) ku (if the folio	lowing noun is singular)	alu, ālu
	rtiņai) a (if the fol- lowing noun is plural)	
7th case kan	oii, kan, kāl, kaļai, etc.	kaņ, kāl, kaṭai, etc.

I. In the medieval period, since what is stated by the author of Vîracoliyam is entirely different from that of others, I have not mentioned it here but in 3.21324.

^{2.} Tolkäppiyanär has mentioned 'an' in
Ku-ai än-eya varän m-iruti
A-v-varü cinanuñ seyen bulfit (Tol. Col. 108.)

though he has not stated that it denotes third case.

Kan-kāl kaţai-iţai talai-vāp ticai-vayin Mun-căr valam iţam mēl-kāl puţai-mutat

- 3.21322. Vocative case: There is generally no special suffix to denote vocative case. If the person addressed is very near the speaker, the nominative case form itself is used if the word ends in a vowel or äy. If the person addressed is at a great distance from the speaker, the quantity of the last vowel of the word is increased. (e.g. nampīi, makkāaļ, etc. Tol. Col. 152.) This is quite similar to the practice recorded in Pāṇini's statement 'dūrāddhūtē ca' (P. A. 8.2.24.). If the person addressed is neither very near to, nor at a distance from, the speaker, the following changes take place:—
- (1) If the noun ends in i, i is lengthened to i, e.g. nampi.
- (2) If it ends in ai, ai is changed to āy; e.g. nankāy, annāy; but in words of relationship like annai, ai is also changed to ā, e.g. annā.
- (3) If it ends in $\bar{\sigma}$ or u, \bar{e} is added at the end. e. g. $b\bar{u}$ -v- \bar{e} , tiru-v- \bar{e} , etc.
- (4) If it ends in y like cōlay, y is dropped if the person spoken to is near the speaker (cōla), and a is also lengthened if he is a little away from him (cōlā); if it is a verbal noun like vantāy or noun derived from a word denoting quality like kariyāy, y is changed to y; if y is preceded by ā, like cēramāy, there is no change; if it denotes relationship as makay, ē is added at the end.
- (5) If it ends in r preceded by a or ā, a or ā is changed to ī. (e.g. kūttar—kūttīr, pārppār—pārppīr; cf. cennā-p-pulavīr (oh! poets of refined speech) (P.N. 140, 2); if it is a verbal noun or one derived from a word denoting quality, a or ā is changed to ī and ē is added at the end, (e.g. nantār-vantīrē; kariyār kariyīrē.)
- (6) If it ends in l or l, the preceding vowel is generally lengthened. E. g. kuricil kuricil; makkal makkal. This is similar to Pāṇini's statement 'vākyasya ṭēḥ pluta udēttab' (P. A.

- 8.2.82.) If it ends in l and is a verbal noun or a noun derived from a word denoting quality and if it is proceded by \bar{a} , l is changed to y (e.g., $ning\bar{a}l-ning\bar{a}y$; $kariy\bar{a}l-kariy\bar{a}y$). If it ends in l and denotes relationship, \bar{e} is added at the end (e.g. $makal-makal\bar{e}$).
- (7) If nouns denoting a& rinar have to be used in the vocative case, δ is invariably added at the end. (e.g. puli-y-δ, etc.)

The nouns ending in other letters have the same form in the vocative, as in the nominative case.

As regards the formation of the vocative case there is practically very little difference in all the three periods—ancient, medieval and modern).

- 3.21323. Special points regarding certain case-suffixes mentioned above:—In an attempt to give, an historical exposition of grammatical theories in Tamil, the following points regarding certain cases deserve special notice.
- 3.213231. 7th case-suffix:—As regards the 7th case-suffix in the ancient period. Tolkāppiyaṇār gives two sūtras (Tol. Col. 81 and 82), the latter of which is the following:—

Kaŋ-kāl puram-aka m-ul-l-ulai kīl-mēl Piŋ-cā r-ayal-puṭai tēvakai y-aṇēa Muŋ-ṇ-iṭai kaṭai-talai valam-iṭa m-cṇēa Aṇṇa pirava m-ataṇ-pāla v-eṇmaṇār. (Tol. Col. 82.)

This stanza is interpreted by Hampüranar and Naccinārk-kiniyar to denote the suffixes which may come in the place of kan, the 7th case-suffix; but Cēṇāvaraiyar interprets it to denote the different meanings of kan, the seventh case-suffix. Naṇṇēlār and all the later grammarians agree with Hampūranar. But the arguments set forth against it by Cēṇāvaraiyar under the same sūtra appear to be convincing and my discussion in detail on the same is found in pages 94 to 96 of my Collatikāra-k-kurippū A critical study of collatikāram of Tolkāppiyam which was pub-

The above points are mentioned in vilimarapa of Tolkäppiyam, and säiras 304 to 314 of Nannül.

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lished in 1930. One or two of the most important points may be mentioned here. If the latter suitra makes mention of suffixes, the suffix kay which finds a place in the sutra

Eļā kuvatē Kaņ-ņ-cņo-p peyariva vērrumai-kkiļavī Viņar-cey y-itatti ņilattir kālattiņ Aņai-vakai-k kurippir rövru m-atuvē.

(Tol. Col. 81.)

need not be repeated here; tēvakai which is found in this sūtra is taken by all the commentators not as a case-suffix but as the meaning of the case-suffix kan; if akam be taken as a suffix, the căriyai atlu that is found in the expression 'ūrakattıruntāṇ' (he was in the village) would be quite out of place, since the cāriyai can come only between a noun and a case suffix and not between a noun followed by a case-suffix and it verb.

3.213232. 6th case-suffices:-As regards the sixth casesuffixes, it deserves to be noted that Tolkappiyanar says that it is ku if it is followed by an uvartinai nount and atu in other places; and Nannülär does not make any mention of ku and proceeds to make a new point by observing that ' atit' and 'ātit' are used if the tollowing noun is singular, and 'a' is used if it is plural. It seems strange here that the same element 'atu' affixed to nouns or pronouns denotes the gender of the noun which they qualify according to Tolkappiyanar and its number according to Nannülär. It seems to me that the latter has stated so since numerous expressions like 'ninga kanniyum (even thy garlands) (P. N. 45.3.), avara kāppuļaiya kayam (their protected wells) (P.N. 15.9.), emata acciyare (T. 21.1 to 7)' were found used before his time. I venture to suggest the following reason for such a usage:—We see that, in expressions like that epata' (hand is mine) and 'hankal ena' (hands are mine), the suffixes ata and a denote respectively singular and plural.

Here I have followed the commentary of Ilamparanar on the stira.

Alu-v-e p-urupu-kepa-k kukaram varume, (Tol. Col. 94.)

the and a are regular since they are the verbal terminations denoiing ongan pål and palavin pål; but when expressions like 'enatil kai' (my band) and 'enath kathal' (my bands) where alu at the end of egath is not a verbal termination, but the sexth case-suffix, were used, it may have been wrongly understood that atti in both enath kai and kai enath was the same sixth case-suffix. This may have led to the feeling that ath in 'enath kaikal' should be treated as a mistake and changed to 'ena kaikal' on the analogy. of 'kaikal ena'. Or expressions like \$6kd tama (K. 376) may have led to it. Here tama which, in its origin is a plural apprilative verb formed by adding a to tam is found used as a participal noun and means one's own objects. Thus expressions like 'tama populkal' in the sense of objects which are one's men may have come into vogue. In such instances a of tama may have been mistaken for the sixth case-suffix added to words accompanied by plural nouns.

The following examples clearly support Tolkappiyanar's view that the noun or pronoun having the suffix 'ath' may be accompanied by a neuter noun irrespective of its being singular or plural.

Ninatiru tiru-v-ați (Your two feet). (Cilap. 24, p. 518, 2nd edn.)

Iraivanath ativinai (God's two feet). (T. 127.5.)

Unath ativar manathyō (Arc you of the minds of your devotees). (P.T. 150.7.)

N.B.—Here afi and manam are neuter plurals.

3.213233. Fifth case-suffix 'il':—Tolkāppiyaṇār recognises 'iṇ' as the fifth case-suffix, whereas 'il' has taken its place in Viracoliyam and is found used along with 'iṇ' in Naṇṇūl and other later works. No attempt appears to have so far been made to discover the process by which Tolkāppiyaṇār's 'iṇ' may have been metamorphosed into 'ii' at the hands of the author of Viracoliyam.

For this I would suggest the following solution: Consider the following equations:

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kāl + naņmai = kāņaņmai kāņ + naņmai = kāņaņmai.

If we reverse the process, it is easy to see that there are two possible legitimate ways of splitting könaymai. This may have proved to be a fruitful source of confusion between the final n and final l. Perhaps in similar cases of sandhi like aracaninallan (aracanin + nallan or aracanil + nallan), a bias may have been developed in favour of the latter alternative aracanil + nallan. Thus 'il' may have come to usurp the place of 'in' as the suffix of fifth case.

3.213234. Third case-suffix 'āl':—Tolkāppiyaṇār's 'āṇ' used as an instrumental suffix¹ perhaps underwent the same vicis-situde as in, the lifth case-suffix, and came to be replaced by āl (the third case-suffix) in Viracolliyam. It is found used along with āṇ in Naṇṇūl and other later works.

3.21324. The author of Viracoliyam adopts a different plan for explaining case forms. As has already been said, he adopted Pāṇini's definition of padam and combines both the element that denotes the number and the element that denotes the case as one denoting case and number, since only one pratyaya denotes both number and case in Sanskrit. Besides, he says that 'cu' is the pratyaya for the first case singular and it is always dropped. This is evidently done in close imitation of Pāṇini's Grammar.² According to him the case-suffixes are the following:—

Singular: Honorific Singular & Plural: 1st case en (dropped afterwards) ar, ar, arkal, arkal, kal, mar & (en in the neuter).

2nd case ai preceded by au.

3rd case ofu, ōju, āi preceded
by au.

ai preceded by ar, ār, etc.
eju, ēju, āl preceded by ar, ār,
etc.

Ku-di āŋ-eŋa varūu m-iruti
 A-va-atū civaņuñ ceyyu ţ-uţţz. (ibid. 108.)

^{2.} The author of Pirayökavivākam follows him to this point. Cf. urupepare collega cuppēri niikum, (P. V. 37. Comm.)

Singular :

4th case ku, paruțiu preceded by cu.

5th case ningu preceded by han, it, etc. preceded by cu.

6th case nṭaiyāṇ (āṇpāl)
nṭaiyāṭ (peṇpāl)
nṭaiyatù (oṇraṇpāl)
(ku preceded by cu when
the 6th case hecomes
a kāraka.)

7th case kē, ulai, il, kaņ and other words denoting place preceded by ess.

Honorific Singular & Plural; hu, poruțțu preceded by ar, ār, etc.

ningu preceded by hau, il, etc. preceded by ar, ar, etc.

uļaiyār, uļaiyārkaļ (palatpāl)

uţaiyiya (palavinpāl) (ku preceded by ar, ār, etc. when the 6th case becomes a kāraka.)

kē, uļai, etc., preceded by ar. ār, etc.

3.213241. The points to be noted here are.—(1) The mention of 'ar' as the pluralising particle of nouns, while 'r' alone is said to be so by Tolkāppiyaṇār. It is shown in my article on Cutteluttu! that a of ar is only ademonstrative root and has nothing to do with the plural number.

(2) The mention of the forms arkal and ārkal; these are evidently cases of double plurals not sanctioned by Tolkāppiyanār. The latter says that 'kal' may be affixed only to neuter nouns to denote plural number as māṭukal (bulls), but that too was not absolutely necessary. According to him and even the later grammarians, we may say māṭu vantaṇa (bulls came), Hence it is very likely that kal which was originally added only to denote palaviṇṇāl, may have been used through analogy to denote palaviṇṇāl, (e.g. nōṇṇi-kal (M.M. 3.75); vacukkal (T. 42.5) and then it may have been added to plural forms both in palar-pāl and palaviṇṇāl. Then it seems to me that it was further extended through analogy to verbs also.

Examples of these double plurals and the use of kal after uyartinal nouns are found in very few instances in Cilappatikāram (e.g. pentirkāl Cilap. 469.4) and in plenty in works of Saiva and

^{1.} J. O. R. Vol. i. p. 4.

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Vaisnava literature and certain other works belonging to the period from 6th to 9th century A.D. and in the inscriptions of the later period.

Pattarkal payilavaittār (the temple purchits made them learn) (T. 27.2),

Ivai pājum tavamuļaiyārkaļ (they have the fortune of singing these) (P.T. 96.10).

Envakai vaeukkaļēļū (with eight kinds of Vasus)

 $(\Upsilon, 42.5.)$

Sēņāpatikaļ. (S. 1. 1. iii, iv, 133.)

It is worthy of note that such a use of kal is not at all found in the earlier works of the Sangam period like Puranānūru, Patirguppattu, etc.

In this connection I may say that, so far as Tamil is concerned, I do not agree with M. J. Vinson who thinks that the general plural sign in Dravidian is gal or kal and r another form or plural is of relatively modern origin. The reasons set forth below support my view on this point:—(1) According to Tolkappiyanar there may have been a period when 'r' was used and 'kal' was not.

- (2) In words like aracarkal (kings), kal does not displace r but is added only after it.
- (3) 'R' is found in the verbal forms as a plural element in Tamil, Telugu and Canarese from the ancient times, and kal is not found as such in Canarese and Telugu even now. (e.g. Tel. cēsiri: Kan. geydir.)
- (4) 'R' may have been a plural element common to both the Dravidian and Indo-European languages since 'r' is found in Sanskrit l\(\tilde{e}\)bhir\(\tilde{e}\).

It may be useful to observe in this connection that the practice of supporting the view that Tamil is a language of the suffix agglutinating type, by illustrations involving the suffix kal (palayai, palaykalai) may easily be called into question, in view of the fact, that, according to Tolkappiyanar, there may have been a period in the history of Tamil when forms like palayai

^{1.} J. A. Dixeme Serie Tome 17. Le Pluriel Primitif en-M.

were used both in our an palavin palav

3.213242. Forms having $\delta t \hat{u}$ as the third case-suffix are rare in the works of Sangam period, but in later works they occur more frequently than the forms with $\delta t u$.

Malar magaļēḍu (with Lakṣmi). (1. А. Vol. 22, р. 70-М. М. Р.)

Kol-koliggūdum (even with war-bulls). Do. Muņt tāņ umaiyāṭū mnyaṅki (Siva having been in the company of Pārvati). (T. 110, 5.)

Angu āyarkula-k-koṭiyōtu (on that day with (Kṛṣṇā) the banner of the families of shepherds), (P. T. 37.1.)

3.2113243. The sixth case-suffixes mentioned by the anthor of Viracoliyam are utdiyan, etc., and his commentator gives ivan korranulaiyan, ival korranulaiyal etc. as examples for the same. But korranulaiyan, korranulaiyal, etc. are only appellative verbs, and hence they cannot be words of the sixth case. He might have given utaiya as a sixth case-suffix for which he had many examples from the literature and inscriptions which were in existence in his time. The following are some of them:

Ceytavapuțaiya—levikku (T. 106.3). Mun-ciral-c-cavaiyôruțaiya (T. A. S. i. H. O. P. 5). Paviliya caranattüruțaiya (Ibid. p. 8).

3.21325. It will be interesting to note here that the practice of attributing case values to certain words became widely prevalent in the medieval and modern periods though it was not entirely unknown in early Sangam works. For instance, ktil, tital etc., were occasionally used in the place of the seventh case-suffix in early Sangam works, porutin in the place of the fourth and hoppu in the place of the third (e.g.)

Ūrkkāl nivanta (Ka. T. i. 334, 1). Tenricai yāay kuļi-y-iņrāyin (P. N. 132). Ilittar poruļļu (K. 784). Oru-kaņas konļu mū-v-ciyal uļarri (P. N. 55).

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There are numerous such instances in the works of later period and in colloquial speech (e.g.)

utan as third case-suffix—avanutan, ivan vantān (Colloq.) pārkkilum as 5th case-suffix—avanaippārkkilum, ivan naltan (Colloq.)

kāṭṭilum Do. avaṇa-k-kāṭṭilum ivaṇ natiaṇ (Colleg.)

ițam as the 7th case-suffix—ürițam iruniă<u>u</u> (Colloq.) ițai Do. irun kăuițai (Kampar, A. 232, 28.)

3.21326. INFLUENCE OF VIRACOLIYAM ON NANNOL. The author of Nannul follows the author of Viracoliyam in stating hal as the pluralising particle of uyartinai nouns also, the and at assuffixes of the 3rd case and it as a suffix of the seventh. But it is refreshing to see that Nannular wisely refrained from introducing before all case-suffixes in the singular and after neuter plural the imaginary 'an' which the author of Viracoliyam, owing to his Sanskritic obsession, did not hesitate to adopt.

- 3.2133. CLASSIFICATION: Though Tamil grammarians include pronouns in a comprehensive class called payar-a-col which comprises nouns also, it seems to me proper to treat here noun declension separately from pronominal declension having regard to the fact that vowel-gradation which is a prominent feature of the latter type of declension is not found in the former.
- 3.21331. DECLENSION OF NOUNS: The declension of nouns in Tamil is much easier than that in Sanskrit. It is so fundamentally different as to form one of the points to show that Tamil and Sanskrit belong to entirely different families of languages. It may be divided into two classes: (1) declension of a nyartigal nouns and (2) that of assignal nouns. Uyartigal nouns may be classified under two heads:—(a) those that denote their tinal by their endings like aracan, vanikan, kariyan, kariyal, etc., (b) those that do not denote their tinal by their endings like āṭān, makaṭān, tantai, annai, nankai, makkaļ, māntur, etc.

Ancient Period

(1) a. Āṇpāl: Ist case kariyan Penpal: kariyal

Palar**pāl:** kariyar

2nd case karryanai	kariyalai	kariyarai
3rd case kariyanotu	kariyalotü	kariyarotü
kariyanān	kariyalān	kariyarān
4th case kariyarkii	kariyalukku	kariyarkkü
5th case kariyanin	kariyalin	kariyari <u>n</u>
6th case kariyaratü	kariyalatu	kariyaratü
kariyarkii	kariyalukkü	kariyarkkii
7th case kariyankan	kariyalkan	kariyarkan
8th case kariyāy		
		karıyır kariyire.
But makan has 431,253)	for its plural makār. (e.g.	makarotu-Pattu
(1) b. (i)	Änpāl:	Palarbāl:
1st case	tantai	tantaiyar
2nd case	tantaiyai	tantaiyarai
3rd case	- tantasyofu	lantaiyarotü
	tantaiyāņ	tantaiyarāy
Etc.	Etc.	
(ii)	Peņpāl:	Palarpāl;
1st case	annai	annaiyar
2nd case	anyhiyai	annaiyarai
3rd case	annaiyotü	annaiyarotü
	annaiyān	annaiyarārn
Etc.		Etc.

But makal has for its plural makalir in the ancient period (e. g. tipai kuru makalir—Pattu. 435 342) and makalirkal also in the later periods (e. g. itai-y-ira makalirkal Kampar. B. 49.14).

There are certain nouns which are always plural in number. E. g. māntar, makkaļ. The words āṭān and makaṭān, it appears to me, were used only in the singular number in the ancient period.

Onran pāl:	Palavinpāl;
1st case ā	ā, ākkaļ
2nd case aviņai	āviņai, ākkaļai
3rd case avinotů, avinan	övinetu, äkkaletu
	aninan abhalan

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Ongappal;
4th case āvigkū
5th case āvigip
6th case āvigatū
7th case āvigkaŋ
8th case āvē

Palavinjai :
āviņkā, ākkāļukķā
āviņeņ, ākkaļiņ
āviņatā, ākkaļatā
āviņkaņ, ākkaļiņkaņ
āvē, ākkaļē.

It deserves to be noted here that the cariyai or flexional increment is added between the base of the noun and the case-suffix more commonly in the case of asyinar nouns than in that of ayartina nouns. There is a peculiarity in Tamil that all finite forms of verbs like unten unten, unten, untan, untarkat, etc., take case-suffixes after them like the forms untavan, untaval, etc., when they are used as participial nouns. Such a usage is not found in Sanskrit except that the third person, singular, present parasmaipada of verbs is used as substantive denoting the corresponding root and declined as such, e. g. saktuh sacatéh (M. B. i, 4.12.) which means that the word saktuh is derived from the root sac.

The following may serve as examples for using the finite verbs as participial nouns.

Vempukingēņai (me who am feeling sorry). (T. V. 6.78.) Nāyēṇai-p-pornipaṭutiù (having treated with grace me who am like a dog). (T. 31.3.)

Umakkē āļāy-1-tirikingāmukkā (to us who are wandering as servants to you alone). (P. T. 92.4.)

Nefumālukku aruļ ceytānai (him who has shown grace to Visou). (T. 217.2.)

Tēvarkaļubba amuta īntāņai (to bam who supplied the devas with nectar). (T. 217.2.)

3.213311. EXAMINATION OF DR. CALDWELL'S VIEWS: Dr. Caldwell says that the masculine singular suffix of the Tamil is an, bn or bn. An, the shorter formative is that which appears in the demonstrative pronoun ann (a-(v)-an)'.1 He further says that findeed, bn and bn have evidently been

^{1.} C. D. G. 223.

formed not from ay, but from a-v-ay by the softening of the euphonic v and the coalescence of the vowels'.

The first statement that an, an or an is the masculine singular suffix falls to the ground from the mention made by Tolkāppiyanār that it is only n^2 that denotes it. It is shown in my article on Cuttefuttu³ that n of nn is a demonstrative root.

As regards the second point that $\bar{a}y$ and $\bar{b}y$ are the corrupted forms of avay, it may be stated that a' and a' never coalesce into a' in Tamil, nor can a' be softened to a' so that a' and a' may become \bar{b} as in Sanskrit. Besides we would have to explain the origin of ay in avay. We should be moving in a circle if we say that the mosculine singular suffix ay came from $\bar{a}y$ which came from avay, and avay was formed from a and ay. $\bar{A}y$ itself may be changed to $\bar{b}y$ by making \bar{a} more a close vowel, in the same way as the final a' in Sanskrit is pronounced like a' by Bengalis.

Similarly it may be said with respect to the feminine singular suffix l.

Dr. Caldwell says 'that every Dravidian noun is naturally neuter, or destitute of gender, and it becomes masculine or feminine solely in virtue of the addition of a masculine or feminine suffix'.4

In our present state of knowledge, it may not be possible to determine conclusively whether inflected forms in Tamil with gender and number suffixes arose from certain proethnic Dravidian vocables in accordance with what Jespersen⁴ calls the theory of secretion through a process of disentanglement of final elements and their adaptation as suffixes; or whether, as Dr. Caldwell seems to be inclined to believe, such forms in Tamil arose from pro-ethnic Dravidian neuters through the composi-

I. C. D. G. 225.

^{2.} Na&kā porrē pātāu v-ari-col. (Tol. Col. 5.)

^{3.} J. O. R. Vol. i, p. 4.

⁴ C. D. G. 229.

^{5.} J. L. P. 383.

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tion of certain pronominal elements denoting gender and number. However, a careful examination of the oldest available Tamil grammar, viz., Tolkäppiyam emboldens me to say that so far as Tamil, in its earliest period, is concerned, the gender in nouns must have been determined mainly by their meanings and not by their suffixes. It would be of advantage to hear in mind in this connection that Tolkäppiyanär plainty says that the suffixes v, l, r, etc. need not necessarily be used after nouns to indicate gender and number, though they must be invariably used after verbs.

Dr. Caldwell says that the epicene pluralising particles in Tamil are ar, $\bar{a}r$, $\bar{a}r$; ir, $\bar{i}r^2$; mar, $m\bar{a}r^3$ and var^4 .

Since ar, ār, and ōr are used in connection with third person plurals and ir and īr in connection with second person plurals, it is evident that 'r' alone denotes the epicene plural as is mentioned by Tolkāppiyanār.

As regards 'var' he says that it is the abbreviated form of avar, on the basis of its presence in the word nālvar. But it seems to me that, since v is only an intervocalic element in oruvar, irnvar, mūvar, aivar, aruvar, it may be said that v in nālvar has crept in through analogy with the above forms; or it may have been the corrupted form of mār, since m can change to v very easily.

What is the origin of mar? It is worth investigating whether it is made up of the two pluralising particles m and r with a connecting vowel a. M is found to be the pluralising particle in the first personal pronoun nām, yām and in the oblique case base em and in the verbal terminations em, ēm, kum, tum, tum and rum of the first person plural. I am glad to see that M.J. Vinson

Irutinai maruiki n-aim-pā I-ariyu
 Īrrinin r-icaikkum patinā r-eluttun
 Torran tāmā viņai-y-oţu varum-ā, (Tol. Col. 10.)

C, D, G, 239.

^{3.} Ibid. 240.

^{4.} Ibid. 241.

already suggested this in 1911 in his article La Pluriel Primitif em-M-(J.A. Dixieme Serie Tome 17).

Again, Dr. Caldwell says that the verbal terminations mar, mar and mayar are not identical with the epicene pluralising acticles mar and mar, since in verbs m denotes the future tense as b or v and hence it may have been the modification of b or v. But this cannot be taken as absolutely true since Tolkappiyanar has not definitely stated the tense signs, and makes us infer that the tense was determined mostly by context. This will be dealt with in detail in the section on verbs.

3.21332. DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS:-Pronouns may be divided into (1) Personal Pronouns (2) Demonstrative Pronouns (2) Reflexive Pronouns (4) Interrogative Pronouns (5) Relative Pronouns (6) Pronouns derived from numerals and (7) Indefinite Pronouns.

3.213321. PERSONAL PRONOUNS:-Personal pronouns consist of pronouns of the first person and the second person. There is no personal pronoun in Tamil for the third person since the demonstrative pronoun itself serves its purpose. The declension of the first and second personal pronouns in the ancient, medieval and modern periods is as follows:-

3.2133211. FIRST PERSONAL PRONOUN (ANCIENT DEDIADA

LEMOL	j.		
Case:	Singular:	Plural:	
1st case	ydn	yām	જ હૈમા
2nd case	ennai	emmai	nanunai
3rd case	ennan)	(ខារការបីៗ	(nammān
	ennotie	emmoti	nammotii
4th case	enakkii	emakkü	namakku
5th case	ennin	emmini	namin
6th case	enatú }	s ematic	(namatù
	cnakků)	emakku	l namakků
7th case	enkan	eńkan	nankan
	(MEDIEVAL AND	MODERN PER	RIODS)
	Singular:	Plura	4

yam, yankal; nam, nankal lst case yau man emmai, ehkalai; nammai

2nd case ennai

Singular : 3rd case engal, ennota, ennota

4th case enakků (někků collog.)
5th case ennin
6th case enatů (if it is followed

by a singular noun)
ena (if it is followed
by a plural noun)

7th case enkan, ennil, etc.

Plural:
cmmāl, chkaļāl; nammāl
cmmāl, chkaļāl; nammāl
cmmōļū, chkaļāļū; nammōļū
cmmoļū, chkaļūļū; nammoļū
cmakkū, chkaļūķū; nammiņ
cmatū, chkaļātū; nammtū (if it is
followed by a singular noun)
cma chkaļa; nama (if it is followed by a piural noun)

enkan, enkalinkan, nankan, etc.

(The collumpà like poruțță, etc. mentioned by the author of Viracoliyam and the later grammarians are also added in all periods.)

YAN NAN: As regards the first person singular nominative Tolkappiyanar has mentioned only yan. The authors of Viracolliyam and Nannul and the later grammarians have mentioned nan also. They have done so since nan began to be used in literature before the time of the author of Viracolliyam. The following quotations may serve as examples for the same. Nan congru nati (I having approached) (P. T. 128.1.); nan or innai kanan (I do dot find any help-mate) (T. V. 25.10.). The form nan may have been formed through analogy with nam, the nominative case plural.

Ennois: As regards ennois, the third case singular, it is evident that it has been formed from ennois by the lengthening of e to o.

Ena: As regards a in ena as a sixth case-suffix, vide 3.213232. supra.

Yām, yānkaļ; nām, nānkaļ; Tolkāppiyanār has mentioned only yām and nām.² The author of Vīracoliyam has mentioned

- Tān-vā n-tunu m-āpi r-šrutiyum
 Mēn mup peyaroţum vērupā ţ-ilavē. (Tol. E. 193.)
- Tā-nā m-ēnņu makara viņutiyum Yām-e n-iņutiyu m-ataņā r-anņa Ā-ey y-ākum yām-e n-iņuti Yā-vayin yakara-mey keţutai vēnţum Ēņai y-iranţu neţu-mutai kurukum.

in V. V. 91 that nam is used as honoritic singular and nankal as plural. Its commentator adds your to the former and youkal to the latter. Evidently yonkal and nankal are cases of double plurals. It is worth noting that kal can be used only after m the pluralising particle, unlike some ayartmai nouns like vacukkal, nonpikal where kal is directly added to the singular form of the noun. Such forms are not sanctioned by Tolkappiyanar. are found, it seems, for the first time in Cilappatikaram, te.g. yānkaļum-Cilap. 298.161.) Though Nannūlār mentions only yam, nam in Na. 287, yet the forms yankal and nankal are acceptable to him under the general sutra No. 278. The later grammarians have followed the authors of Viracoliyam and Nangul. The reason why the author of Viracoliyam says so is that examples where nam is used as honorific singular, and nānkal and yānkal as plurals were found in plenty in the literature written before his time. The necessity for the forms yānkaļ, nānkaļ may have arisen from the desire of the speakers to distinguish the plural from the honorific singular. The following quotations may serve as examples:-

Yam pinutta neţunal yanai (Elephant caught by me yesterday) (P.N. 162.5.) Here yam is honorific singular.

Năm tolutum elu nencame (I worship; oh! mind rise) (P.T. 120.1.) Here năm is honorific singular.

Nănkal uyyêmê (We will not live.) (P.T. 92.1.)

Yānkajum niņerippaļarkutum (We shall also go through the long path.) (Cilap. 469.4.)

Enkaļai, enkaļāi, etc. These are double plurals formed from the base em, but not from the other base nam.

Ema, enkala; nama: The reason for the appearance of these forms is the same as that for ega.

The following quotations may serve for the forms of double plurals mentioned above.

Nankal perumāņai (our lord) (T.V. 7.67). Enkal perumāņ (our lord) (T.V. 7.75).

^{1.} See f. n. 37 infra. (ibid. 189.)

Enkaļ māl iraivan (our lord Viṣṇu) (P.T. 112.2). Enkaļukku aruļ ceykinra īcaņai (God who shows grace to us) (P.T. 151.3).

It may be noted that words having the sixth case-suffix omitted are much larger in number than those with them.

N in yan, ennai, ennain, etc. This may have been the particle denoting the masculine singular. Originally, these words may have been used by the male member of a family and they may have been used even by the female member. But Dr. Caldwell does not agree with this view.1

He says "I think it unsafe, however, to conclude from this or from any of the facts mentioned, that the initial n of nān is of modern origin....... Nān is represented as we have seen, as alternating with yān in the most authoritative grammar of the classical Tamil." He has made this statement only on the strength of Nannūl. He would not have made this statement had he seen that Tolkāppiyanār has not made mention of nān.

Dr. Caldwell says "In all the Dravidian dialects with the exception of Canarese, there are two plurals of the pronoun of the first person, of which one denotes, not only the party of the speaker, but also the party addressed, and may be called the plural inclusive; the other excludes the party addressed and denotes only the party of the speaker and may be called plural exclusive. The colloquial Tamil forms the plural exclusive from nām, the ordinary regular plural by addition of gal, which is properly a neuter sign of plurality." This is not wholly true even so far as the modern colloquial Tamil is concerned, since nām may also denote third persons standing by the side of the speaker. Since at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār, there were not two forms, but only one form, there was absolutely no room for the classification as the plural exclusive and the plural inclusive. The author of Viracollyam says that nām was used as honorific singu-

^{1,} C. D. G. 370.

^{2.} Ibid. 367.

^{3.} Ibid, 414 and 415.

far and $n\bar{a}nkal$ as plural.¹ But the author of Naggul mentions in connection with the personal terminations at the end of verbs that am and $\bar{a}m$ are used in the first person plural to include the person spoken to, and $\bar{c}m$, $\bar{c}m$ and $\bar{c}m$ to exclude the person spoken to.²

Nākhā: The initial vowel e in enakkā is dropped and consequently a following n is changed to e and then lengthened to by compensation. Since n cannot be initial, it is changed to n. The existence of two different bases on and nam in the oblique cases, respectively of the singular and plural in Tamil is similar to that of the bases mat and asmat of the 1st person singular and plural in Sanskrit. Besides, the element m is found in the plural bases of both.

Collective first personal pronoun: There is a collective first personal pronoun clām mentioned by Nannūlār (Na. 287). This remains the same in all cases, and is preceded by the oblique forms of yām and nām as cumai-y-clām, nammai-y-clām, chkaļai-y-clām, etc. Another collective personal pronoun is cllām which is said to be used for all personal pronouns. (Tol. E. 190 & 191, and Na. 285.) This cllām was declined at the time of Tolkāppiyanār as cllānammaiyum, cllānammānum, etc., if it referred to first or second personal pronoun or nyartinai demonstrative pronoun. It seems to me that, since the forms cllīmm and cllāmm and their oblique forms were exclusively used in the second, and the third, person respectively, cllānammaiyum began to be used only to denote the first person at a later time. (Na. 245, K.) But at the present day it is not thus

Unnum-ennum-tannum yāvum-avvum-tvvu m-uvvum-evvum
Ennum-ivarrin-mun pā-nān-rān-cu-v-veril yō-mutala
Vannum-vaffun-tuvvum vaiyuā-cirappi-nār nāmoţu-tām
Pinnil-avutum-var palarir-kaffāţū-var kaf-l-enpavā. (V. V. 9.)

Am-ām cupaņu munnilai y-āraiyum
 Em-ēm ām-ivai patarkkai y-āraiyum
 Um-ār ka-ta-ra iru-pā l-āraiyum
 Taŋ-ŋ-otu paţukkun taŋmai-p paŋmai. (Na. 333.)
 17

declined, the form ellām itself being used after the case forms nammal, nammāl, etc. (e. g. nammai-y-ellām, nammāl-ellām, etc.) Sanskrit does not have a similar collective first personal pronoun.

3.2133212. Second Personal Pronoun (Ancient Period).

Singular:	Plural.
11 Ju	mīyir ²
ninnai	nummai
ninnotic, ninnan	nomnoții, nammă <u>n</u>
ninakkü	numakkû
minim	dene errottige
ninatů, ninakků	numatù, numakkà
niykan	mnhan
(Medieval and Moder	rn Periods).
Singular:	Plural:
	ir, nīvir, nīr; nīyirkaļ, īvirkaļ, nīrkaļ, nīm, nīnkaļ.
	ningai ningai ningakii ningakkii ningin ningalii, ningakkii ningkan (Medieval and Moder Singular:

2nd case ningai, nungai, ungai 3rd case ningal, nungal, nunal

ningāl, nungāl, ungāl nummāl ummāl, nūkaļāl. ningojū, nungajū, un- nummojū, ummajū, nūkaļojū. notā.

ունցընէն, ռարդնէն, արընէն

nummöțů, ummöțů, unkalöțů.

nummai, ummai, nakalai.

4th case ninakků, nunakků, unakků akků-(nökků-Celleg.)

 Nī-y-e y-oru-peşar neţumutal kuţukum Āvayi ŋ-akara m-oṛṛā kummē, (Tol. E. 180.) Avaţţuţ Nî-y-en kiţavi y-orumai-k k-urittē, (Tol. Col. 189.)

Ntyir nt-y-ena varānis kifavi
 Pāreri pilavē y-uţaŋ-mali-p paruţa. (ibid. 188.)
 Ēŋai-k kifavi paŋmai-k k-urutē. (ibid 190.)

Tanmai pan-nan yam.nim munnılai
 Ellir niyir nivir nir ni
 Allena patarkkai ellä m-enal potu. (Na. 285.)

Case:

Singular:

Plural.

5th case ninnin, nunnin, nunin 6th case ninath, nunath, nuath

nummin, ummin, uńkaliy. memaiń, emath, uńkalatú, enma, uma.

ni<u>n</u>a, mina, mpa 7th case mykan, nunkan, unkan,

etc.

t, nunkan, unkan, unkalinkan, etc.

Nigir: The nominative form nigir is said to have been derived from the oblique case form num by Tolkāppiyaṇārī and hence it may be said that it was later than the oblique case form num. It also seems to me that it may have been derived from nī by the addition of ir the pluralising particle of the second person.

NIR and NIRKAL are mentioned by the author of Viracolliyam. Nir is only the contracted form of niyir or nivir, and nirkal is evidently double plural. Its commentator mentions that, sometimes, nivirkal and nivirkal also are used.²

NIM is found in Civakacintāmaņi and it is stated in its commentary that it is a ticni-c-col. It may have been borrowed from Canarese or may have been formed from uī through analogy with uām, tām, etc. This form is not found in any work written before Civakacintāmaņi.

NIYIR, NIVIR and NIR are mentioned by the author of Nammal. Nivir may have been formed by the substitution of v for y between i and i in ni+ir through analogy with invitam (i-v-v-itam), etc. Since it is not mentioned by Tolkappiyanar and it is not found in the earlier Sangam works, it may have been of later origin.

NINKAL is a double plural formed from the plural nim. This form is not found in works written before Civakacintāmaņi. It is the only form that is now very largely used not only as honorific singular like nir but also as plural.

Panmaiyil nīrkaļ, nīnkaļ....enavum varum; nīrkaļ enpatē nīyirkaļ nīvirkaļ eņa ātācam ātalum uņţú. (V. V. 9. Comm.)

2. V. V. 9. comm. cf. f. n. under 4.1 supra.

Num-m-in çiri-peyar nināviņ peyar-ençā
 A-m-muçai y-iranţu m-avarriyal piyalum, (Tol. Col. 143.)
 Num-m-e n-iruti y-iyarkai yākum. (Tol. E. 188.)

The following quotations may serve as examples for the forms mentioned above :—

Nīyā poruma (you are great). (P. N. 5.3.)

Ningai y-innaturra v-aranil kūrrė (the god of death who has unmeritoriously taken away your life). (P.N. 255.3.)

Ninnota paraiya (to fight with you). (Pari. 11.67.)

Nipakka irumpu tanmai (your wonderful quality). (Pari. 23.3.)

Ningin ciranta nin tāliņai (your teet which are superior to you). (Pari. 29.62.)

Niyiru m-irunilan katanta (even you having crossed the wide tract). (Pattu. 131.28.)

Varutu niyirum (you too better come). (Pattu. 100,143.)

Nir...toluminė (you better worship). (T. 19.1.)

Nir Inlankal vēņļā (you will not desire). (C. C. 745.)

Ațiyên vantațaivanime (I, the slave, will resort to you). (C. C. 563.)

Nīnkaj nākkumiņ (you better see). (C. C. 1045.) Nīyir aivīrum (you five). (Kampar, A. 725.67.)

Unkal kulattutiltörkatkelläm (to all who are born in your family). (Kampar. K. 247.78.)

What is the origin of the base 'UN' in the singular found in the medieval and modern periods? It seems to me that it was evolved out of the base nip of the ancient period in the following way:—First of all we see the form nun used in the following sentences:—

Nuga cīraļi nāva (to make your little feet suffer). (С. С. 1517.)

Numpati-p-payarkkum (going to your residence). (P. K. i, 32.93.)

of Civakacintāmaņi and Peruńkatai, respectively, works written between the 9th and 10th cent. A. D. Nun may have been formed from nin by changing i to u through analogy with the vowel u found in the plural base num. Then in collocations like nunhō-nunnai,...(M. M. 283.100) which admit of being split up in two ways—nunhōn+nunnai and nunhōn+

unnai, the latter alternative may have been adopted, and thus the form un may have come into being. Now that the first appearance of un is accounted for, it would scarcely be difficult to imagine how such a form may easily have become generalised. The following illustrations would make clear how such wrong splittings not infrequently serve as fruitful sources of new doublets in phrases involving sandhi between final n and initial n.

For instance in nougen mattu naquatu kangā (T. V. 1037.), the expression nānuntu is shown by Dr. Pope to be capable of being split in two ways as nān + nuntu and nān + untu though the earlier form nuntu appears in the sentence nuntum pantapperumai (T. V. 6.187). From this it will be seen how the doublet untu arose beside the earlier nuntu. Similarly in 'putalvarār polintānuntai' found in the Vipīṭaṇaṇ-aṭaikkala-p-paṭalam of the Yutta-kānṭam in Kamparāmāyaṇam, the expression polintānuntai was wrongly split into polintān and untai and the doublet untai arose beside the earlier nuntai recognised by Tolkāppiyaṇār. (Cf. Tol. E. 67.)

Forms with the base not at all found in the early works of Sangam period like Puranānūrū, Akanānūrū etc. They begin to appear in very few instances in Manimēkalai and are freely used in Tevāram, Tiruvācakam, Nālāyirappirapantam and other works written between the 5th and 9th centuries and they have almost ousted the old forms with the base nigin the modern period. The following may serve as examples for the same.

Niu peruntunpam (your great suffering). (M.M. 172.43.)
Orntani niurāy unriram arintēn (you stood alone and
Lunderstood your power). (M. M. 50.96.)

Unnațiyên unai ninaintăl (if 1, your servant think of you), (T. 31.2.) (unai for unnai).

Unnai yan pirinta nai! (the day when I gave birth to you). (C. C. 2100.)

Unatu ațiyê caranamê (your feet are my refuge). (P. T. 150.9.)

Unmēl ātaram peritū (regard for you is great). (P. T. 46.9.)

Up maṇatlāt (with your mind). (P. T. 44.1.)

Uṇ aṭṭydr-tāṭ þaṇivām (we will worship the feet of your devotees). (T. V. 7.36.)

Unakkē atuikkalam (we are under you). (T. V. 7.73.)

Unnai-p-pirān-āka (thinking you a stranger). (T. V. 7.35.)

Similarly the base sum may have been replaced by um. Then the particle kal may have been added to the base um so that we have two bases um and unkal. In modern times, the base um is used in connection with honorific singular, and unkal with plural. The following may serve as examples for the same:—

Umakku into nāṭṭē vantu toṇṭarāṇa nāṅkaļ (we who have come to this country and become your devotees). (P. T. 93.7.)

Umakkē āļāy (being your men). (P. T. 92.4.) Unkal kulattutittörkkellām (to all who have been born in your (amily), (Kampar, K. 247.78.)

NOKKO: The first syllable in unakků is dropped on the principle of economy of effort and a is made the guttaro-labial vowel a by the influence of the labial u, before it is dropped.

The existence of two different bases nin and num in the ancient period for the oblique cases respectively of the second person singular and second person plural in Tamil is similar to that of the base tout and purnat in the singular and plural of the second person in Sanskrit. Also the elements n and m are found in the plural bases of both.

COLLECTIVE SECOND PERSONAL PRONOUN: Tolkāppiyaṇar mentions that ellīrum is second person and should be declined as ellīr-nummaiyum, ellīr-nummoļum, etc. (Tol.E. 192). Naṇṇūlār mentions elīr in the nominative case (Na. 287) and ellīrummaiyum, etc. in the oblique cases (Na. 246). Besides ellām may be used along with the oblique cases of the second person. But at present, the use of the oblique case forms of ellīrum have died out and those of ellūrum, the demonstrative form in uyartinai and its poetical form ellōrum are used instead. e.g. unkaļ ellāraiyum vara-e-connāļ or unkaļ ellāraiyum vara-e-connāļ (she asked all of you to come). Sanskrit does not possess a similar collective second personal pronoun.

- 3.213322. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS are of three kinds:—(1) Remote Demonstrative Pronoun (2) Proximate Demonstrative Pronoun and (3) Intermediate Demonstrative Pronoun.
- 3.2133221. REMOTE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN assumes in the ancient period the following forms in the nominative case—avay in masculine singular, aval in feminine singular, avar in epicene plural, atu or astù in neuter singular and avai and av in neuter plural. (e.g.) avvum piravum (they and others) (Pari, 26,23). But in medieval and modern periods there are two forms avar and avarkal in epicene plural and two forms avai and avaikal in neuter plural. The oblique cases are formed by adding case-suffixes to the nominative forms without any change.
- 3.2133222. Similarly the forms of the PROXIMATE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN in the nominative case are ivan, ival, ivar and ivarkal, itu or istic and ivai, iv and ivaikal. (e.g.) ivvum uvvum (these and those) (Pari. 26.23). The oblique cases too are formed in the same manner as in the Remote Demonstrative Pronoun.
- 3.2133223. Similarly the forms of the INTERMEDIATE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN in the nominative case are usun, usul, usur, utu or uhtu, usur and us. These forms are gradually going out of use.
- R. Swaminatha Aiyar¹ says, 'Old Tamil usage, however, clearly indicates that, in its inception, n was a far demonstrative and it is used as such in the Oldest Tamil works.' He derives n from ava through the intermediate stages δ and n. Then he says that the demonstrative element n is of comparatively late origin.' The examples he quotes where n, according to him, is far demonstrative are from works which are later than Tolkāppiyam.

 [&]quot;Aryan Affinities of Dravidian Pronoun" read in the Third All India Oriental Conference, Madras, p. 7.

In Tolkappiyam, uvay, uvaļ, utu and uvai are mentioned along with avay, avaļ, atu and avai. If both the demonstrative elements a and a had had the same function at the time of Tolkappiyaṇar, one of them would have died out even at his time. U may have been used in his time to denote objects at a distance and a to denote objects at remote distance,

Avar and ivar were used as honoritic singular and avarkal and ivarkal as plurals at the time of the author of Viracoliyam (V. V. 9). But now avar, avarkal, ivar and ivarkal are all used both as honoritic singular and plural. The a in Tamil avay, aval, etc., and i in ivay, ival, etc. respectively have their parallels in Sanskrit, in a of tat and i of idam.

There was a collective third person plural pronoun which had the form of ellārum in the nominative case and ellārummaiyum, ellārummotum, etc. in the oblique cases. The insertion of tam is almost extinct in modern speech. Similarly, ellām in the nominative case and ellānammaiyum, ellānammotum, etc. and ellāvarraiyum and ellāvarratum, etc. in the oblique cases were used along with pronouns of the epicene plural and neuter plural respectively. (Tol. E. 190 and 191.) Even in ancient period the forms ellāraiyum and ellārotum, etc. were used in place of ellānammaiyum, ellānammotum, etc. e.g. kaṭavuṭar ellārkkum (to all gods). (Ka. T. ii, 559.36.) In the later periods if they are used along with the nouns in oblique cases which they qualify, the nominative form itself is used. e.g. nyirkkelām (to all living beings). (Kampar. B. 3312.)

3.213323. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS are respectively tân and tâm in the nominative singular and plural. They are shortened to tan and tam in the oblique cases before they take case-suffixes. Tâm also takes kal in the modern period as other pronouns. The form tânkal is now used as an honorific second person singular also, when it is followed by a verb of the second person plural.

R. Swaminatha Aiyar says that "tan was in its inception merely a pronoun of the third person, and that a reflexive meaning has come to be superimposed so as to overshadow

its original sense to such an extent that it has now come to be called the Reflexive Pronoun". From the examples he has quoted it seems to me that the reverse may have been the case; for since there were the demonstrative pronouns avay, aval, atu, etc., there would be no need for another kind of pronoun of the third person in tay. Tolkappiyanar states that tay and tam are respectively used in the singular and placal. He has not mentioned that they should be used only in the third person; besides, from the context of the sauras dealing with tay and tam, it is clear that he thinks that they could be used along with the pronouns of all persons and genders. Since the examples quoted by R. Swaminatha Aiyar are from works later than Tolkappiyam, it seems to me that tay and tam were originally reflexive in origin and their use has been so extended that they are used even as demonstrative pronouns.

R. Swaminatha Aiyar traces tan to R. V. tann and tam to tman² but in the present state of my knowledge, I cannot agree with him.

3.213324. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN: The forms of Interrogative Pronouns that are found in Tolkappiyam are yavan, and evan. Tolkappiyanar says that yavan can be used as the logical predicate of masculine singular noun, feminine singular noun and epicene plural nouns, and that evan may be used along with neuter singular and neuter plural and also when the gender of the object that is questioned is not clear. The oblique forms too at the time of Tolkappiyanar had the hase ya. In the medieval

^{1.} Ibid. p. 45.

^{2.} Ibid. p. 47.

Yaa r-ennum vināviņ kilovi A-t-tiņai marunkin mu-p-pāţku m-urittē.

⁽Tol. Col. 219.)

A-t-tipai maruiki n-iru-pār hilavikkum
 Okku m-enpo v-evon-en vināvē. (ibid, 219.)

Yatu-eva n-engu m-ayiru kiloviyum Aziyo-p poruț-vayir ceriya-t tönrum. (ibid. 31.)

period evaikal and evarkal also were used. In the modern period the forms, evan, eval, evar, eta and evai, evanui, evalui, evarai, etai or etanai, evarrai have almost taken the place of vavan. yazal, yazar, yatu, yavai, yavayai, yavalai, yavarai, yatai or yālanai, yāvarrai, etc. Hence the original interrogative root was 95. But Tolkäppiyanär himself mentions an interrogative form even and takes $\tilde{\epsilon}$ as one interrogative root and makes use of such words as e-p-pornt, e-p-povar, etc. Hence it seems to me that, before the time of Tolkappiyanar, ya may have been the base of the forms in the nominative case e.g. yavarum pigarum—(Pari-55.8.) and e the base of forms in the oblique cases and that, at the time of Tolkappiyanar, the base ya was generalised throughout e.g. yovarkkum caval nipatu—(Pari, 9.55.) and at the later periods a began to be generalised throughout e.g. evanum itai-cceyvan (any one can do this), everkhum itu elitit, (this is easy for any one to do) etc.—(Collog.)

Dr. Caldwell thinks that $y\bar{x}$ was the original form and that \bar{e} must have been corrupted from it. But since the root e is found in the form evay mentioned by him and \bar{e} is used as syntactic interrogative from the earliest times, it is also probable that e or \bar{e} may have been the original and $y\bar{x}$ may have been formed from it through analogy with $y\bar{x}y$, which may have been formed from the oblique base ey.

In addition to these interrogative pronouns, there are three interrogative roots, \bar{a} , \bar{e} and \bar{o} which serve as syntactic interrogatives and are added at the end of nouns or verbs. e.g. Avanā vantāņ? (did he come). Some of these as \bar{a} and \bar{o} denote mere question and the third \bar{e} denotes doubt etc.

3.213325. RELATIVE PRONOUNS: Tolkāppiyaṇār and other grammarians have not stated anything about relative pronouns. The purpose of the relative pronouns is served by the participles e.g.

Unti-ketuttör uyir-ketuttörä (food-givers are life givers).
(P.N. 18.19.)

Ceyvinai-k-k-etirnta tervar (enemies who were against the actions done), (P.N. 6.11.) Nirayań kolpavarotú (with these who go to hell). (P.N. 5.6.) Cērvānai-k-kantāt (if you see him who will mix with

Cērvāṇai-k-kaṇṭāi (ii you see him who will mix with you). (T. 25.2.)

But in Manimēkalai and some of the later works the interrogative pronouns began to be used in certain instances as relative pronouns. This, it seems to me, is due to the adaptation of Sanskrit sentence form in Tamil. For instance, sentences like 'yātouru yātouru mūrttam atu anittam' (whichever is mūrta is anitya) are found in plenty in Manimēkalai. This sentence is exactly the translation of the Sanskrit sentence 'yat yat mūrtam, tal tat anityam'. The same idea may be expressed in Tamil as 'mūrttam āṇatu aṇittam'.

R, Swaminatha Aiyar says that "the Sanskrit masculine yavan appears to have been one of the earliest relative interregative forms adopted in Tamil and other Dravidian languages", Two points are to be noted here :- (1) Yāvān is only a relative pronoun in Sanskrit and is never an interrogative, and it exists from a very ancient period; while the relative pronoun in Tamil is a recent introduction and yeven in Tamil was originally an interrogative pronoun; (2) Besides, if yavan was derived from vāvān, why should the second a he shortened in Tamil? Again he says, "the interrogative e which appears initially in composition as in Tamil e-p-peyar . . . has apparently arisen from the imitation of such Sanskrit compounds and combinations as yatkāma yātkā raņa, etc. This e is another of the earliest relative interrogative forms adopted in the Dravidian languages. It is possible that the base yad has also given rise to the Dravidian pronouns, edu, edi." This appears to me to be an extreme view. The form etu in Tamil is only of later origin. The corresponding form is yavatu in Tolkāppiyam. The e of e-k-kālam is formed in the same way as a-k-kālam, i-k-kālam, since, as Dr. Caldwell says, 'the Demonstrative and Interrogative bases are built. up on those bases in precisely the same manner and obey one and the same law."

3.213326. PRONOUNS DERIVED FROM NUMERALS: They are of two kinds, viz., orway, orwar, irwar, miwar, etc. which belong to ayartinai and onri, iraqin, mingin, etc., which belong to asrinai. The oblique cases of the former set of words are formed by adding the case-suffixes directly to them. In the modern period the forms irwarkalaiyum, irwarkalaiwum, etc. which are formed by adding the suffix kal to irwar, miwar, etc., before adding the case-suffixes are also in use. The oblique cases of the latter set of words are generally formed by adding the flexional increment an between them and the case-suffixes, e.g. onranaiyum, iranianaiyum, etc. The form orwar was used at the time of Tolkāppiyanār when the speaker was not sure whether the person he spoke of was a man or a woman. R in ornvar does not denote plural number.

3.213327. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS: palla, pala, cila, ulfa, ilia—these words which correspond to indefinite pronouns are included by Tolkāppiyaṇār in the list of aṣriṇai words. Evidently they are plurals. Their oblique cases are formed by adding the flexional increment varyu after them and before casesuffixes. e.g. palla-varyai, cila-varyai, etc.

Palar and cilar are not mentioned by Tolkäppiyanar in the list of upartinai nouns; yet he makes use of palar in the sutra palarari collė (Tol. Col. 7). They are found freely used in Purananuni and other works later than Tolkäppiyam. e.g. mäynticinör palarė (many have died). (P.N. 27.6.) pätjum utaiyör cilarė (there are a few who have songs composed on them). (P. N. 27.5.)

The word piga also may be placed on a level with palla, pala, etc. In the medieval period, kal came to be added to it. e.g. poypporul pigakal (other unreal objects). (C. C. 468.) cilai-kalum pigakalum (and other stones). (C. C. 2158). From piga, the form of pigar may have been evolved. e.g. pigar ventu pulam (land desired by others). (Pattu. 197.80): pigarum kūţi (even others having joined). (Pattu. 232.518.) This too got the addition of kal in the medieval period. e.g. piganta-v-akkulavikal pigarkal yōvarum (those born infants and others). (C. C. 2834.)

3.214. NUMERALS: 3.2141. CARDINALS: According to Tolkåppiyanår, ongå, irantå, etc. are considered poyar when they mean one person or object, two persons or objects, etc.¹. The number corresponding to seven is el at the time of Tolkåppiyanår, while elu has displaced it in the later periods. There is a tendency at the present day to use the word orupatå in place of pattà. It seems this tendency existed even in the ancient period (cf. Tol. E. 471 and 472) and in the 12th century since it is found in the inscriptions of that period, e. g. nargorupattelum (one hundred and seven). (S. I. I. iii, i. 72, (3:) irunüggorupattum (two hundred and ten). (S. I. I. iii, i. 78.5.)

The substantive numerals, except entit are sometimes used as numeral adjectives. e.g. irantu manitarkal (two men). When they are used as adjectives, they are not declined as in Sanskrit, i.e., whatever be the case of the noun that it qualifies, only the nominative form is used. e.g. irantu manitarai, mannu makkalāl etc.

- 3.2142. ORDINAL NUMBERS are formed in Tamil directly from the cardinal numbers by adding ām, the shortened form of the verbal participle ākum. Hence we get the forms ongām, irantām, etc. Similarly āvatu is added in place of ām. Hence we get the forms ongāvatu, irantāvatū etc. Besides there is another form mutal for the first ordinal.
- 3.22. VINAI: 3.221. DEFINITION: Tolkāppiyaṇār states that viṇai does not take the case-suffix but is found generally denoting the tense also2. This is taken to be the definition of verb by his commentators; but it seems to me that Tolkāppiyaṇār did not intend it to be so, since the word kālamaṭù in the above sūtra suggests that the verb denotes something else besides time, and the word niṇaiyuṅkālai suggests that it is not compulsory that the verb should always denote time. This is borne out by the fact that the kurippu-viṇai or appellative verb

cf. Inpittena-k kilokku m-ennu-k-kuri-p-peyarum in Tol. Col. 168. cf. F. N. 7 in p. 105.

Viņai y-eņa-p patuvatu vērzumai kaļļātu Niņaiyuikālai-k kālamatu tāņrum. (Tol. Col. 198.)

like kāṇakanāṭaṇai (you are the lord of jungle tract) (P. N. 5.3.) does not denote time. Hence, in my opinion, Tolkāppiyaṇār does not intend this sūtra to be the definition of viṇai or verb. Then one may ask what its definition is. I think that he suggests it by the name viṇai itself which means action. In choosing that term he may have had in his mind the statements 'laid ākhyātam yēna bhāvam' (R. V. P. 12.5.) and krryāvācakam ākhyātam (S. Y. V. P. 8.46).

The author of Viracoliyam also does not attempt to define viņai, but suggests it by his word 'lelig patam' in V.K. 1. The author of Neminatam repeats 'viņai-y-eva-p-patapa....' (Tol. Col. 198.) But Nangūlār seems to define viņai as that which denotes caypavaņ or doer, karnvi or instrument, nilam or place, ceyal or action, kālam or time and cayparaļ or object. This cannot be its definition since a verb cannot denote all the above six things but generally only action and time and person. It is almost certain that this sūlra is only an adaptation of the sūtra

Vinai-y-ē ceyvalu ceya-p-paļu poruļē Nilaņ-ē kālan karuvi y-eņrā Innatar k-ilu-paya y-āka v-eņņum Anņa marapi y-iraņļoļu-n tokaii Ā-y-eţ ţ-enpa tolin-muta nilaiyē. (Tol. Col. 112.)

where it is said that, generally, eight things precede an action, i.e., viyai2 or kyti mentioned by Sanskrit logicians, coveati or

Ceypovan koruvi nilañ ceyal kālam Ceyporul arum taruvatu zinaiyi. (Na. 320.)

^{2.} It is worth noting that vival in this satra alone evidently means kyti. Kyti is quite different from kriyā. Kyti denotes the volitional effort of mind and kriyā denotes the activity that follows volition. All the commentators mistake the word vival for kriyā or tolii, as may be seen, for example, from the statement of Cēṇāvaraiyar vaṇaintāy epravoli, vaṇaitaryolilum, vaṇaintā karuttāvum, etc.' and the repetition of the same by the author of Ilakkaṇa-viļakkam (I. V. 226, Comm.). According to their interpretation the meaning of the sūtra becomes, vival or tolii etc., precedes tolii. How can tolii precede tolii? It may be noted here

doer, ceyappatuporul or object, nilam or place, kālam or time, karnen or instrument, innatarkā or the recipient of the result of the action and its payan or the purpose of the action. Tolkāppiyaņār does not seem to intend this sūtra as a definition of the verb.

The author of Hakkaṇaviļakkam seems to have seen this defect in Naṇṇūlār's definition of viṇai and also seems to have noted that the sūtra 'viṇai y-eṇa-p-paṭuva (Tol. Col. 198) is also defective owing to his mistaken notion that it deals with the definition of viṇai. So he makes the addition 'poruṭpuṭai peparcoi pulappaṭup paṭuvē' to Tol. Col. 198. Hence according to him viṇai is that which denotes action and time and which does not take case-suffixes after it.

- 3.222. CLASSIFICATION: Verbs are primarily divided into two classes, viz., kurippu-vinai and vinai¹ (latterly known as terinilai-vinai).
- 3.2221. KURIPPUVINAI or appellative verbs are in the opinion of Tolkappiyanar, those that are formed from the words denoting qualities as argaten (I possess strength) (Pattu. 346. 29), from compounds made up of a word denoting quality and a word denoting any limb as netwiceviyan, (he has sharp ears) from words made up of a noun and a particle denoting comparison as ponyannam (we are like gold in colour). (P. N. 84.2.), and the verbs ingu, ila, ntaiya, angu, ntaitu, alla and nta.

that the same word vinai is used in other places to denote verb and the word tolil also is used in the same sense.

Ci. Peyarun tolilum pirintorun k-icaippa.... (Tol. E. 133.)

- Kurippinum vinaiyinu neri-p-pata-t- tönri-k Kalamoju varuum vinai-ε-col l-ellam Uyartinai-k k-urimaiyu m-a, rinai-k k-urimaiyum A-y-iru tinaikkum-ö τ-anna v-urimaiyum A-m-mū v-urupina tönra l-ārē. (Tol. Col. 201.)
- Inyila v-nţaiya v-ennun kilaviyum
 Anguţait- talla v-ennun kilaviyum
 Ponpu-koţ kilaviyu m-uţa-v-en kilaviyum
 Ponpi n-ākiya cinai-mutag kilaviyum

the forms like kuṇṇukaṭṭù, etc., and illai and vēṛù! which are common to all genders and numbers.

The author of Viracelliyam seems to mention in V.K. 11 that vivalkuripph corresponds to the bhāvēprayēga in Sanskrit. Since the bhāvēprayēga in Sanskrit is used only in the third person singular to denote the action alone as sthiyatē for sthiti and the viņaikkuripph is used in both the numbers of all the persons and denotes not only the action but also the person and the number, his view does not seem to be correct.

Nannūlār adds to the list of appellative verbs given by Tolkāppiyaṇār the words formed from those denoting the time and place as bṇattāṇ, kāṇakaṇāṭaṇai (P.N. 5.3.) and the word uṇṭū, and says that uṇṭū is common to all genders and numbers². He also defines kurippuviṇai as that which can take only a subject before it and is not governed by any word in the second, the third, the fourth, the fifth or the seventh, case³.

The author of llakkanavilakkam and other grammarians except the author of Pirayökavivēkam have followed the author of Nannūl.

It seems to me that the form until (from the root u!) which may have been used only as the neuter singular like intil and antil at the time of Tolkäppiyanar was generalised throughout so that it began to be used with all persons, genders and numbers from about the time of Nangular.

Oppotu varānā kiļaviyotu tokaii Appar pattuā kurippotu koļļum. (ibid. 220.)

Munnilai viyakkāļ viņai-y-eūcu kiļavi
Inmai ceppal vēren kiļavi
Ceymmana ceyyuñ ceyta v-ennum
A-m-murai ninga v-ā-y-en kiļaviyum
Tiripu-vēru potāuā ceytiya v-āki
Irutinai-c corkumā r-anna v-urimaiya. (ibid. 222.)

Vērillai y-untaim pal-mā v-itattaņa. (Na. 339.)
 Evan-en viņāviņai-k kurippu iļi y-iru-pāl. (ibid. 350.)

3. Paruļ-muta l-azīņum tāzri-mun n-āzaņuļ Viņai-mutal mattirai viļakkal viņai-k-kurippē. (ibid. 321.)

4. ci. Itai-p-patir kuruku m-itanu mar-unte. (Tol. E. 37.)

The author of Pirayokavivekam seems to think that the kurippuvinai which are formed from nouns correspond to the nāmadhātus (denominatives) lound in Sanskrit. For instance, the Tamil appellative verbs, pāmpanaiyān, aruppān are similar in nature to the namadhālus pultrīyati, kranāvatē, etc. But it seems to me that they (kurippuvinai) are not so, though both are derived from nouns; for, pultrivati means either he wishes to have a son or he wants to act like a son; similarly, tapasyati means he wishes to perform penance; mālāti means it acts like a garland and so on; but mahanen in Tamil (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 722, 7), means 'I am the son'. Hence there is a great difference in sause, between nāmadhātus in Sanskrit and appellative verbs in Tamil. Besides there is a difference in the form too. Generally, one of the particles kyar, kyan etc. is added between the noun and the verbal terminations in Sanskrit denominatives, and such verbs are used in all tenses and moods. But in Tamil appellatives, the verbal termination is invariably added directly to the nouns and they have no tense-element in their forms.

Hence I may say that the appellative verbs form a special feature of the Tamil Language. Originally, they may have been participial nouns and later on used as logical predicates. Afterwards, they may have been included under verbs.

3.2222. VINAI OR TERINILAIVINAI: 3.22221. CLASSIFICATION INTO SIMPLE AND CAUSAL VERBS: Terinilai-viņai may be divided under two heads—tap-viņai or simple verb and piņa-viņai or causal verb. It should be clearly understood here that tap-viņai and piņa-viņai do not at all correspond to ātamanēpada and parasmaipada respectively as stated by Dr. Caldwell. For, tan-viņai denotes an action done by the person or thing denoted by its subject, while piņa-viņai denotes an action done by one other than the agent denoted by the subject. But in Sanskrit if a root can take both ātmanēpada and parasmai-pada terminations, the former are used when the result of the action goes to the doer and the latter when it goes to some one other than the doer.

^{1.} C. D. G. 449.

Tan-vinai is transitive (ceya-p-paţu-porul-kunrāvinai) or intransitive (ceya-p-paṭu-porul-kunriya-vinai) according as it takes an object after it or not. In the sentence 'varumai nākkinrā' (noted the poverty) (P.N. 141.15.) nākkinrā is transitive since varumai (the accusative sign 'ai' is elided here) is its object, and in the sentence 'cellāmātil cilvaļai virali' (oh virali with a few bracelets, shall we go?) (P.N. 64.2.), cellāmā is intransitive. Hence Dr. Caldwell's statement that the tan-vinai,....are all necessarily as well as formally, intransitives is not accurate.

The terms tan-vinai and pixa-vinai are suggested by Tolkäppiyanär by the words tanpälänum and pixan pälänum respectively in the sütra

> Itu-ceyal vēņļu m-eņņun kiļavi Iru-vayi pilai-y-um poruļţ-ā kummē Taņ-pā l-āņum piraņ-pā l-āņum. (Tol. Col. 243.)

Peruntévagar, the commentator on Viracoliyam respectively calls them kēvala-tūtu and kārita-tūtu², while the author of Naṇṇūl uses the term ēval-viņai for pira-viṇar³, perhaps not liking the Sanskritic denomination kārita-tūtu.

The statement of Dr. Caldwell that these verbs (causals) have been classed with transitives both by the native grammarians and by Europeans, and Beschi alone places them in a class by themselves and calls them <code>@val-vinai**</code> is therefore incorrect.

3.222211. HOW ARE CAUSAL VERBS FORMED? Tolkappiyanar has not stated how causal verbs are formed. But in the literature of the Sangam period, the following forms of causals are found:—

^{1.} C. D. G. 450.

^{2.} Aţinān kêvala-t-tātu; āţţinān kārita-t-tātu. (V. Tāt. 6, Comm.)

Cey-y-en vinai-vali vi-p-pi tani-varin
 Ceyvi-y-en n-ēva l-iņai-y-i n-īrēval. (Na. 138.)

^{4.} C. D. G. 455,

	Examples:	Quotations:
1.	uyarkkuvai	nattavar-kuṭi-y-nyarkkuvai (Pattu. 217. 131) (You will raise the fallen families).
2,	poyarkhuvai	cerravar arasu psyarkkuvai (Pattu. 217. 132) (You will displace the sove- reignty of the enemies).
3.	pākki	kaivēl kaļirroļu pākki (K. 774) (Having sent the hand-trident with elephants).
4.	tolaicci	kaţikāvinilai tolaicci (Patiu. 218.153) (Having spoiled the guarded state of forests).
5.	ka <u>l</u> ippi	marrai yāmam pakal ura-k-kalippi (Pattu, 236.653) (Having spent the remaining part of the day).
6.	tirutli	köl tirutti (P.N. 17.5) (Having reformed the sceptre [rule]).
7.	cërtti	parravali-e-certii (Cilap. 337.108) (Having attuned it to a song called parra).
8.	uruţţi	ali-tirappata-v-uruiti (M. M. 61.76) (Having solled the wheel so that it may become firm).
9,	ōţţi	alittötti (Ep. I. Vol. XVII, Part VII. V. G. 95) (Having driven after routing them).
10.	vältti	atan tāļ vāltti (Pattu, 220,222) Having praised its feet).

From these it is seen that causals are formed from tan-vigat (1) by the doubling of the consonant of the formative as in examples 1 to 5 noted above, (2) by the doubling of the initial consonant of the signs of tense as in examples 6 and 7, (3) by the doubling of the final consonant of the root as in examples 8 and 9 or (4) by adding the particle 'ttn' to the root as in example 10.

In addition to such forms, the following forms are found in a few instances in Kural and in large numbers in the literature

written after the 5th century A.D. and in inscriptions of the same period.

ulappikkuń cūtů (K. 938). ulappikkum navaphittär nalkämai (K. 1190). nayappillör ättnevitälär oruvar ätätär \hat{e} (T. 1229. stanza, 3), ättuvittäl atakkuvittälär ornvar atanhätäri Do. atakkuviltäl öttuvittälär oruvar ötätärä öttuvittäl Do. urukuvillālār ornvar urukātārē. errekurrittett Da. patturital pättuvittälär oruvar pätätärë Do. panivittālār oruvar paņivātārē (T. 1229.3). panieilläi kättuvittälär oruvar känätärä kättneittäl Do. tāmra šāsanafi-jeyvittāy (I.A. Vol. 22, p. 71 ceprittan M.M.P.L. marramkka vělví marravikka (Ep. I. Vol. XVII. Part VII. V.G. 36). aruppiphānai kattaruppiphānai (T. 17.4).

Here two points may be noted:—(1) In words like panivittāl, ceyvittān, aruppippāṇai, vi or pi is added direct to the root and (2) in words like āṭṭuvittāl, āṭṭuvittāl, ctc., vi is added to the causal forms ōṭṭu, āṭṭu, etc., of the roots ōṭu, āṭu, etc. Hence ōṭṭuvittāl āṭṭuvittāl, etc., may be considered as double causals. Perhaps, seeing such examples, the author of Viracōliyam said in V. Tāt. 6 that the forms like āṭṭu, āṭṛu, are kāritam or causals and if vi or pi is added once after them, they become kāritak-kāritam or double causals and if vi or pi is added twice after them as āṭṭuvippāṇ, they become kāritakkāritakkārītam or triple causals. But he has failed to note that vi or pi may be added direct to roots to make them causals even though examples like uṭappikkum and œyvittān were found before him.

Possibly to remove this defect Nannular says that *ēval* or causals are made by adding vi or pi to the root and *irēval* or double causals, by adding either of them twice or both once, and does not mention triple causals.

Cey-y-en vinai-vali vi-p-pi tani-varin Ceyvi-y-en n-ëva l-inai-y-i n-ir-ëval. (Na. 138.)

The author of llakkaṇavilakkam, though he agrees with Naṇṇulār that *ēval* or causals are formed by adding vi or *pi* to the root ¹, feels that the mention of *irēval* is absolutely unnecessary².

The author of Pirayökavivékam prefers the Sanskritic term kāritam to denote éval like the author of Viracōliyam and mentions, in P.V. 35, that causals are formed by adding vi or pi, and, in the commentary on the same sûtra, says that they are also formed by the doubling of the consonant of the formative. In the same place he imports the Sanskritic grammatical term nijanta and composes a smail sûtra 'vippi nicantań kāritam ākum'. He calls the forms āṭṭū, āṭṭū, etc. 'sahaja-nijanta'. When the ordinary form like aṭutta is used for the casual form eṭuppitta, as in 'aracan eṭutta-v-ālayam', he says it is a case of 'antarbhāvitaṇic'.

From this it is evident that the ordinary forms of verbs are also used in causal sense. The word 'tapu' mentioned by Ilam-puranar under Tol. E. 76 which means 'die or make another die' is a fitting example of this.

The introduction of the terms nijanta and antarbhāvitaņic by the author of Pirayōkavivēkam in Tamil grammar does not seem to be appropriate, since the term nic denotes the causal pratyaya i in Sanskrit, while the causal elements in Tamil are of varied nature.

In this connection, it may be mentioned that, in the indeclinable participial forms like *kaļīi*, *niṛīi*, where the roots are *kaļ* and *nil*, the element *īi* is considered by the present day Tamil Pandits to be the elongated *ī* and to convey the causal sense. In order to determine whether it is exactly so, I give below a brief analysis of all the indeclinable participial forms found in Puṛanāṇūṛū and Pattuppāṭṭū.

Munga r-0tiya mutanilai y-igutiyin
Vi-p-pi y-enpowat goppatu tuni-varin
Eval vinai-mutag gerinilai vinaiyin
Mevaru pakuti yam-ena molipa. (I. V. 44.)

Irukāl-ēvutal kūriyatu kūral-ām-ākaky....(I. V. 44, Comm.)

Ro	ot. In	ideclinable participial	No. of times	
		form in which it	in Pura-	in Pattu-p-
		appears.	កនិត្តពីក្រវែ.	pāṭṭu.
(a)	ari	<i>arīi</i> (causal)	***	1
	ari	agii (simple)	1	* 4.4
	Restri	kalīi do.	H 0 7'	1
	$ku\underline{t}i$	kulli do.	2	7
	tali	ta <u>l</u> ti do.	9	10
		(causal)		2
		(passive sense)	W 41.4a	1
	pati	pații (causal)	1	
	muți	พนส์สี (simple	3	2
	(ne	oun)		
	270362-6	merti do.	I.	***
(b)	èrne.	árīá (simple) /	(10) · · · ·	1
1 .		(causal)	2	5
	20 150	uții (simple)		3
		(causal)		2
	00734	urli (simple)		2
		(causal)		1.
	ne grad	nrīi du. —	1	
	oru	orīi (simple)	4	1
	helw .	kelii do.	1	4
		(causal)		1
	ceruku	cerii (simple)	1	1
	tarn	tarīi do.	-11	5
	maru(v	u) marli do.		1
	veru(vu) verii do.		5
	poru(vu) porii do.		1
(c)	acai	acaii do.	2	10
	alai	alaii do.		4
		(passive sense)	+ # 2	1
	urai	araii (simple)	754	1
	katai	kataii do.	***	2
	kavai	kavati do.	***	2
		(causal)	4	1
	kuvai	kuraii do.	***	3

į	Root. Indeclinable participial		No. of times	No. of times
		form in which it	in Pura-	in Pattu-p-
		appears.	nānūrū.	pāţţņ.
	kai	kaii (simple)	4	1
	latai	tațaii do.	***	1.
tulai tai	torfai	Inlaii (causal)	833	1
	tai	tati (simple)	1	1
	насай	nacaii do.	1	3
	miran	nirait (causal)		1
	nilai	nilaii (simple)		1
niy	niyai	nigari do.		1
	mogai	munaii do.	2	2
	vaļai	vaļaii (simple)	1	2
		(causal)	1	6
		(passive sense)) 1	
	virai	virati (simple)	2	4
		(causal)	1 9	1
(d)	kol	kojiš do.	8	7
. ,.	or il	nigīi do.	2	3

This list shows that alapetai is found in the indeclinable participles of roots ending in the vowels i, u and ai and in the consonants l and f. It seems to me that it may occur even in roots ending in consonants other than l and f since the form unii (meaning unii) is found in Aińkurunūrū. But of the roots ending in vowels only those that end in i, u or ai take it,

Besides, it is seen from the list that their usage as tanvinat or simple verbs to their usage as pira-vinat or causal verbs is roughly in the ratio of 2:1. Since the active form itself is capable of giving passive sense in Tamil, we need not discuss the cases where the passive sense is conveyed in some of the examples noted above.

In the examples under (c) and (a), we should carefully consider whether the final i is the element showing the elongation of the previous ai or i, or is a separate element by itself. My opinion is that it is the latter; and it is the element that is added to roots to form indeclinable participles as it is in the forms upahki, pāļi, etc. Thus, in the forms of the roots ending

as acaii, ai is the final element of the root, and i, the sign of the indeclinable participle. If that be so, one may ask, whether it is not necessary to have the intervocatic y between ai and i. The sutra:

Ellä molikku m-uyir-varu valiyë Utam-patu mey-y-i n-uruvu-kolat vareiyär.

(Tol. E. 141,)

clearly says that the insertion of the intervocalic element is only optional. Then what is the element in such cases that makes them causal? It is the context that makes the ordinary forms of verbs convey a causal sense.

The forms kolii, nirii of the roots ending in consonants mentioned under head (d) may have been formed thus :-kel (root)+1 (auxiliary verb, meaning to give)+1 (sign of the indeclinable participle) and nil + i + i. Here the root i is added as an auxiliary to give causal sense. Thus konfú means thaving taken' and kolli means 'having given to take' i.e. having allowed another to take. The cases where the root i is used as an auxiliary are largely found in works of Sangam period, especially in Kalittokai. (e. g. vantīdku coilukuttīvēyē (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 420.19.); pāhan vantīyān kol. (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 429.10.) In these two examples, collubuttiväyê and vantiyan only mean colluvayê and vantān respectively. Though i generally gives causal sense, yet here it does not denote it like the nic in the root forms corayati, etc. of the 10th conjugation in Sanskrit. That such usage is common is seen from the statement in P. V. 35 Comm. that the word terralavar in the sentence 'natpatarerralavar' means only tërëtavar and hence tërrëtavar is a karita denoting 'swartha.'

In this context it may be seen that other roots also like tarn narn are largely used as auxiliaries without any special sense. (e.g.).....tiritarn.....(Pattu. I.I) citaitara (Pari. 76.48.): tuyalvarūum (Pattu. 7.86). Besides both i and tarn are used as auxiliaries in the same word. (e. g.) inku vantīttantāy (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 583.4).

Then as regards $\bar{\imath}$ in the forms $ar\bar{\imath}i$, $ir\bar{\imath}i$, etc. derived from the roots ending in i and u mentioned under (a) and (b), 1 may say that the auxiliary $\bar{\imath}$ was added to them, when their final vowel disappeared. In the later periods the forms $hal\bar{\imath}i$, ullii, etc., have given place to halittu, ullitu, etc. (e.g.) halittar harumai-yal (N. 56.): tuhilum ullitu (N. 264), and urli, etc. to uruvi, etc. so that the root is now considered as urum, etc.

Again the forms with vi or pi are not found, as far as I see, in the Sangam works earlier than Kural. What could have been the reason for the introduction of vi or pi? Pi and vi in such examples as halippi (Pattu. 236,653.) and halippi (Pattu. 353,324) where p and v are intervocalies may have been mistaken to be similar to pi and vi in the Sanskrit forms dapitah, mapitah, sphavitah even though p or v is considered in Sanskrit not as a causal suffix, but the element added before the causal suffix i, and then such forms as kuraivitta (T, 2.81), etc. may have been used.

In colloquial Tamil, words like pāṭa-c-ceytēn and kaṭṭa-ppaṇṇiṇēn are used instead of pāṭuvittēn and kaṭṭuvittēn.

The formation of double and triple causals is a peculiar development in Tamil. It is not seen in Sanskrit.

3.22222. MOODS, VOICES AND TENSES: Terinilativinal has four moods, indicative, eval or imperative, viyańköl or optative and eccam or infinitive, and two voices—active affirmative—in the ancient period, and four voices—active affirmative, active negative, passive affirmative and passive negative—in the medieval and modern periods. There are three tenses in the indicative and infinitive moods, while there is only one in the imperative and the optative moods.

^{1.} This point suggested itself to me in the following circumstances:—The addition of syllables to increase the quantity is allowed by Tolkäppiyanär in verse and also in the use of vocatives. He has nowhere said that it is used to give the sense of indeclinable participle. The insertion of intervocalic y, v etc. is, according to him, optional. The roots taru, varu and t are found in large numbers as auxiliaries in the literature of the Sangam

INDICATIVE 3.222221. MOOD:3,2222211 ACTIVE AFFIRMATIVE VOICE: The verbs in the indicative mood of the active affirmative voice denote three points;—action, time and person. The element denoting action is evidently the root like \$6, nil, etc.; the element denoting person is the verbal termination, an, an, etc., which will shortly be dealt with in detail; the element denoting time is not mentioned by Tolkanpiyanār; but the fact that he recognises such an element is seen from his statement that the past tense is sometimes used for the future and so on.1 The later grammarians like the authors of Viracoliyam, Nannul, etc. make mention of them. What they are will be indicated after a detailed examination of personal terminations.

3,22222111. PERSONAL TERMINATIONS (ANCIENT PERIOD).

Singular;

1st person

en, ēn, al, kū, tū, tū, rū² Plural:

ām, dm, em, ēm, kum, ļūm, tum, rum³.

period, and i is found as the sign of the indeclinable participles in uranki, pari etc.

- Ka-ţa-ta-ţa v-ennum
 A-n-nan k-urnta kungiya lukaramaţu
 En-p-ē n-al-l-ena varuu m-ēļun
 Tau-viņai y-uraikkun tanmai-c collē. (ibid. 203.)
- 3. Avoitām Am-m-ā m-em-m-ē m-ennun kilaviyum Um-m-oju varūun ka-ţa-ta-ya v-ennum A-n-nāy kilaviyo ţ-ā-y-en kilaviyum

Panmai y-uraikkun tanmai-c collē. (ibid. 202.)

Singular:

Plural:

2nd person

i, ai, āy, ōy1

ir, 1r.2

3rd person

(a) masculine ay, dy, dy

ar, år, ör, þa and mär.

(b) feminine

al, āļ, āļ

epicene plural, 6 & 5

(c) neuter ju, lu, ju^E

a, ā, va. neuter plural.7

(MEDIEVAL & MODERN PERIODS.)

1st person.

en, en, al, an ka, ta, ta, ras

am, am, em, em, enkal,

ōm, kum, jum, bem, rum.

Avarruļ
 Muppilai-k kiļavi

I-ai ay-ena varun münrum

Oppa-t tongu m-oruvarkku m-ongarkum. (ibid. 223.)

Ay-en kilaniya m-avarzota kallam. (ibid. 212.)

Ir-ir min-y-ena varāu mūnyum.
 Pallār marunkiņum palavarru marunkiņuā.
 Collār-aņaiya v-eņmaņar pulavar. (ibid. 224.)

3. Ан-ан al-а l-епри напкит

Oruvar marunkir pajarkkai-c colle. (ibid. 205.)

4. Ar-ār pa-eņa varūu таптит

Pollor marunkir paterkkai-e colle. (ibid. 206.)

Mārai-k kiļavi-y-um pallor patarkkai Kāla-k kiļavivotu mutivu m-enpa. (ibid. 207.)

Pāl-ari marapi p-am-mā v-īrrum:
 A-v-ā v-ākuā ceyyu ļ-uļļē, (ibid, 211.)

 Onran patarkkai ta-ra-ta v-ūrnta Kunriya lukara-t t-iruti y-ākum. (ibid. 217.)

A-ō va-eṇa varău m-iguti
 Appan münge palavargu-p patarkkei. (ibid. 216.)

 Tay-ay-un-tir-truñ carriya-tirkal-a t-trkal-um-añ ayata munnilai y-in-n-irap pan-tanmai tan-n-irap pir Reyata-ten-en-un tem-em-un-tom-am-umu m-akum-enpa Veyar-potiyat t-ahattiyanar-conna mey-t-tamilikke.

(V, K, 6.)

Kirāay-ningāy-kirīr ningīr-kirīrkaļ-ningīrkaļ-um-āy Irā-ningana-mun pilai-y-in-nikaleci y-itan-kaṭṭanmai Kirē en-ningēn-kirē (m) ningān-kirām-u

ningöm-um-engan

	Singular:	Piural:
2nd person	i, ai, āy, öy	ir, īr, īrķaļ,
3rd person		
(a) masculine	an, an, on	(ar, ār, ðr, epicene
(b) feminine	al, ål. bl	[arkal, pa, mar. plural.
(c) neuter	tie, rie	$\int a \& \tilde{a}$, neuter plural,
		(a in the negative mood.)

En and E_B : Of these two terminations, e_B is more frequently used in the ancient period than δn , and whenever it is used, it is preceded by a carryai a_B . (e.g.) hantanen (I found) (P. N. 23.17.): vantanen (I came) (P. N. 158.20.): in the later

Terg-ninga-kat-pava lan-tikal-vay-nag girntilaiye.

(ibid, 7.) Vāy-pāy-vir-pir-virkai pīrkel-ivai-mannu munnilaiyir Carpayvitum-etir kalam-itanuli-t tanmaicollin Vēy-pavīga-toļi vēn-pēn-vēm pēmotu vām-pām-um-dā Cey-paviya-celum pôti-p-piran-ran rivunturaikkē. (ibid.8.) Ku-tu-tu-ru ennuh kurriya lukoramêtû Al-an en-ën aku m-irta Iru-tinai mu-k-kūr y-orumait-t taymai. (Na. 331.) Am-am eppeya munnilai y-ārvi--yum Em-em om-ivai palarkkai y-črai-y-um Um-ar ka-ta-ta-ra iru-pā l-drai-y-um Tannotu palukkun tanmai-p paymai. (ibid. 332.) Ai-dy ikara v-irra manrum Evalin varān m-ellā v-īrravum Muppā l-grumai muppilai moliyē. (ibid. 335.) Ir-ir īrra irantu m-iru-tinai-þ Panmai munuilai min-avar r-2val. (ibid. 337.) Ku-tu-tu-rū v-eyyun kunriya lukaramo Tal-l-ag y-en-e y-aku m-tera Iru-tinai mu-k-kūr r-orumai-t tanmai-yum Am-m-a m-irra muyyilai y-arai-y-um Em-m-ë m-ëm-iyai patarkkai y-arai-y-um Um-m-ur ka-ta-ta-ra v-iru-pā l-ārai-y-um Tannotu patukkun tanmai-p panmai-y-um. (I. V. 237.)

Ai-y-ā y-īkara vīzza mūgzu

period en is more frequently used. (c.g.) ukanten nan (I praised) (P. T. 169.4): ninnatainten nan (I went to you) (P. T. 169.5). These two are used in all tenses. En is used even without the cariyai. (c.g.) happen (I will protect) (Kampar. A. 232.28).

Mévaliy varnu m-ella v-1570 T-al-lā l-ēl-kā n-ennu m-irravum Muppā l-orumai mugpilai viņalyum ly-i y-Irra v-iraniu m-iratinai-p Рануний полинават-у-и тіпни т-стра Annavar r-evalu m-ām-sua molipa. (ibid. 238.) Tāy-ān-un-tal-āl-un tār-ārun-tārkal-o ţ-ārkal-engu Menam-uraita pirattiyam-ahun tatu-z-atu-v-un Tén-ar-kalali tana-u-um-ana-u-um tihul-patarkkai Ana-v-irappir relizpatam-arizku m-ayuta-riyê, (V. K. 3.) Ningay kiray-otu ningal-kiral-ivei ningar-kirar Ningarkal-din-kin jarkalu-ningatuh kingatu-y-un Tonyatu-cir-kin yana-kinyana-v-un tikal-patarkkai-p Pinganikalkai tolig-patam-arighum perttagiye, (ibid. 4.) Vag-pag-um-val-pal-um var-par-um-var kal-um parkal-mi-etr Tān-pāviya-v-atu v-um-patu-v-un-tattai y-allai-v-eura Ten-pavan-colli vona-v-um-pana-v-um tikal-paterkkai Vān-pān-muliya m-etirviz-rolizbata m-ārizkumē. (ibid. 5.) An-ā n-iru-mali anpar patarkkai. (Na. 325.) Al-ā l-iru-moļi penpār paterkkai. (ibid. 326.) Ar-ar pa-v-v-a r-akara mā r-lyra Pallör patarkkai mär vinai-y-otu matimē. (ibid. 327.) Tu-ru-tu-k kurriya lukara v-irra Onran patarekai tu-k kurippi n-akum. (ibid. 328.) Aŭ v-irra palavin pajarkkai A-v-2 etirmaraik kanna t-akum. (ibid. 329.) An-n-a n-iru-moli y-anpar patarkkaiyum Al-l-ā l-iru-moli penpēr patarkkaiyum Ar-ār pa-v-v-ā r-akāra mārtīja Pallor palarkkaiyum pakaru-man n-avarrun Marai-k kilavi vigaiyotu muliyiyum Mēlaik kilaviyotu nermpā tingē. (I. V. 232.) Tu-ru-tu-k kurriya lukara v-irra

Onran patarkkaiyum a-a virta

AL: The commentator on Viracoliyam says that al is used to denote the determination of the speaker. 1 Cenavaraiyar says in his commentary on the sutra

Ka-ța-ta-ța v-eŋŋum A-n-nāŋ k-ārnta-kuṛriya l-ukaramōṭii Eŋ-ŋ-ē ŋ-al-l-eŋa varān m-ēṭum

Tan-vinai y-uraikkum tanmai-c-collé. (Tol. Col. 203.) that all is preceded by p or v and is used only in verbs denoting the future tense. Naccinārkkiniyar adds in his commentary on the same sutra that it is sometimes used in the verbs denoting present tense also as in the word nynd-nirpal (I cat). The author of Ilakkanavilakkam agrees with Cēnāvaraiyar.2 In the literature of the Sangam period, though al is generally used in verbs denoting future tense, yet there are instances where it is found in verbs denoting past tense also. (e.g.) kantanen varuval (I came to see) (P. N. 23.17) and weakaiyetii varuval (I came eagerly) (P. N. 165.14). But in all the instances, the determination of the speaker is implied. Hence the opinion of the commentator of Viracolivam seems to me to be more satisfactory. This may perhaps be the reason why Tolkappiyanar has not mentioned the element that denotes tense signs and the particular terminations that are used after them.

AN: This is not mentioned by Tolkappiyanar as a termination of the first person singular. But there are instances in Purananuru 'uraittanan yan' (I said) (P. N. 136.22) yanum... vantanan (even I came) (P. N. 154.7) where an is so used. Similar examples are found in later literature also. (e.g.) ceyhunan tavam ena (that I will do penance) (M. M. 50.182). These examples may have induced the author of Viracoliyam to state

Palarin patarkkaiyum pakaruman n-avan-ut Tu-v-v-izu kilavi kuzippir k-ëzralum Ā-v-i r-etirmarai-k k-ākalu m-uriya, (ibid. 234.)

1. Tunivu-p-porulig-kon tanmai-y-orumaiyil van, pan ennum irantu pirattiyum-am. (V. K. 10, Comm.)

2. Unpol, varuval ena varum al-l-trru-t : tanmai-y-orumai-murru-c-collum....etirkālam-parri varum. (I. V. 237, Comm.)

that an along with p or v as pan or van is the first person singular termination.

The author of Ilakkaṇavilakkam says that an is used in verbs denoting future tense. But the example uraittaṇaṇ cited above denotes only past tense. Hence the opinion of the author of Vicacoliyam seems to me to be more satisfactory.

WHAT MAY BE THE ORIGIN OF THIS AN ? This may be identical with an of the third person singular masculine. Since there is sometimes a tendency to use third person to denote the speaker himself possibly out of modesty, this may have been originally used to denote first person in sense though, in form, it may have been taken as third person singular masculine, and afterwards the form itself may have been mistaken for that of the first person. Or the third personal termination an itself may have been used originally both for the third and the first person at the beginning of the formation of the language and these instances may be the survivals of such pre-historic usage; for, if we observe the growth of language in children, it is seen that it takes a long time for them to grasp the idea of '1' and so they generally refer to themselves only in the third person. al mentioned above may have been metamorphosed into an as the case-suffice an and in to all and il respectively. cf. 3.213233 and 3.213234 supra.

Kú, Tú, Tù, Rù: Of these four tú, tú and rù belong not only to the first person singular, but also to the third person neuter. Wherever these are used, they are not preceded by the tense signs unlike the terminations en, ên, etc. Hence it seems to me that these forms may have come into existence by cutting off ên, ôn, âr, etc. from untên, tantên, cenrên, untân, tantân, cenrân, etc. as in Malayâjam, since the meaning of ên, ân, and âr are expressed by their subjects yân or nân, avan and avar respectively and may have been at some time

^{1.} Tapmai-t-tunivā m-orumai-vap-pana.... (V. K. 10.)

^{2.} Kūruvan ena varum au-n-irrut tanmai-y-orumai-murru-c-collum etirkālam-parrivarum. (I. V. 237, Comm.)

used in all the persons and numbers, but later on restricted to the first person singular and the third person neuter singular. Similarly the form *unkit* may have been evolved out of *unkit* and may have been restricted to the first person singular.

llampüraņar thinks that the forms nākā, nātā, nautā and cērā (Tol. Col. 203, flam.) are used only in the future tense. Nannūlār says in Na. 145 that rā and tā denote the past and the future, fā, the past and kā, the future tense. Cēnāvaraiyar agrees with Ilampūraņar. Naccinārkkiniyar states with caution that all the four mostly denote the future tense. The author of llakkaņaviļakkam agrees with Ilampūraņar. (I. V. 50.)

Am, $\bar{A}m$, $\bar{E}m$, $\bar{E}m$, $\bar{E}m$, $\bar{C}m$; Of these, the first four are generally used in all periods, while the fifth, which is evidently a double plural termination, in the medieval period and the last in the medieval and modern periods. $\bar{C}m$ may have sprung from $\bar{c}m$ by changing \bar{c} to \bar{b} through analogy with the formations vanton, vantol, vantor and vantoy.

The following may serve as examples for most of the terminations mentioned above:—unknown (we will eat) (P. N. 136,26.): ēttukam (we will praise) (P. N. 161,32.): kūrurām (we will marate) (Kampar, B. 26,1.): uṭai-y-ēm (we bave) (P. N.) 112,2): uṇṭāṅkaļ (we ate) (C. C. 1795.): tantôm (we gave) vēṇṭām (we do not pray for) (P. T. 195, 5).

These terminations are like ey, ey, etc. preceded by the tense signs.

Hampüraņar, Cēņāvaraiyar and Nacciņārkkiņiyar mention that ām and ām are used when the subject denotes the speaker and the person spoken to, or the speaker, the person spoken to and a third person, and am and ām when it denotes the speaker and a third party. I Naṇṇūlār says the same, but adds ām also to the latter list.² The author of Ilakkaṇaviļakkam agrees with

Am öm eppapa munningārai uļoppatukkum; tamar-aya-vaļi paţarkkai-y-ārai-y-um uļoppatukkum. Em ēm eppapa paṭarkkaiyātai uļappatukkum, (Tol. Col. 202, Cenā.)

Am-ām eppaņa munnilai y-āraiyum
 Em-ēm-ēm-ivai paţarkkai y-āraiyum. (Na. 332.)

Nangūlār. The author of Vīracoliyam mentions only ℓm and ℓm . The following may serve as examples for the same:—

Payil pantanțalai-p-pațarkuvam (Cilap. 258,67.); here pațarkuvam means 'let her, you and me go'.

Eval ceytuņaivarēm yānkaļ (Kampar. K. 175.14,); here ēvalceytuņaivarēm means let me and others serve you'.

Varikhu-k-küzu ceyvärkalukkum connöm (S. I. I. iii, i, 44-5); here connöm does not include the person spoken to.

In colloquial speech of the modern days, only the terminations $\bar{n}m$ and $\bar{e}nga$ or $\bar{e}ng\bar{o}$, the modified forms of $\bar{e}nkal$ are used. $\bar{E}nga$ or $\bar{e}ng\bar{o}$ are used only by uneducated people. M. J. Vinson mentions only the latter form. (J. A. Dixie Serie Tome 17, p. 189.)

Kum, Tum, Tum, Rum: Whatever is said of $k\hat{u}$, $t\hat{u}$, $t\hat{u}$, and $t\hat{u}$ applies to these four. Evidently, these are formed from $k\hat{u}$, $t\hat{u}$ and $t\hat{u}$ by the addition of the pluralising particle m; (e.g.) $k\hat{u}rapa\hat{u}$ $k\hat{u}rutum$ (we shall state the reasons) (T. 3.3).

I, ai, dy, by: Of these terminations, i and ai are more frequently used in the ancient period, while dy in the later periods; the form by is generally used in literature. In colloquial speech only the termination dy is now frequently used. (e.g.) varaiti (you classify) (P. N. 8,8): varuti (you come) (P.N. 8.8.): patiyinai (you made them rest) (P.N. 15,10.): eri altinai (you set fire (P.N. 16,17.): altay (you will not desire) (P. N. 31.6.): altay (you will blow) (P.T. 160.6 to 10.): katuttay (you gave) (P.N. 2,16). [The author of Viracoliyam mentions only dy.]

Ir, ir, irkal: Ir and ir are generally used in the literature of all periods. In the medieval and modern periods, the double plural terminations began to be used. (e. g.) telkuvir (you will go) (Cilap. 295,91.): patarir (you traverse) (Cilap. 295,87.): vantirkal (you have come) (colloq.); ir is practically extinct.

Am-m-ā mīrra muņņilai y-āraiyum Em-m-ē m-ōm-ivai paţarkkai y-āraiyum....(I. V. 237.)

[The author of Viracolliyam mentions only ir and irkal.] In the colloquial speech at the present day, ir is used in the honorific singular alone and irkal, inga and $ing\bar{a}$ are used in honorific singular and plural. The forms inga and $ing\bar{a}$ are used only by uncducated people. They are evidently the modified forms of irkal. The substitution of i for r may be due to the principle of economy of effort, since it is easier to pronounce i before g than r; or it may be through analogy with i in vantinga or vantinga. The latter form is mentioned by M. J. Vinson. (J. A. Dixieme Series, Tome 17, p. 189.)

An, dn, dn; An is generally preceded by the cariyal an as attanan (he killed) (P.N. 78,12). But it is used by itself after the roots (ul, il, etc.) (e.g.) ulan (he is) (P.N. 86,3). On is used only in literature. (e.g.) urantalyone (he belongs to urantal) (P.N. 68,18.) [The author of Viracollyam mentions only an. (V.K. 3,4, etc.)] but the later grammarians follow Tolkappiyaner. In colloquial Tamil only an is used.

 A_i^l , δ_i^l ; Whatever has been said about ay, δy and δy holds good for a_i^l , δ_i^l , and δ_i^l ; (e. g.) alutanal (she bewailed) (P. N. 143.15). [The author of Viracoliyam mentions only δ_i^l] but the later grammarians follow Tolkappiyanar.

Ar, ar, br, pa, mar, arkal: The first five are used in all periods, while the last is found only in the medieval and modern periods. Or is used only in literature. Arkal is evidently a double plural termination. As regards mar, I quite agree with M. J. Vinson that it is also a case of double plural termination. (J. A. Dixieme Serie Tome, 17, p. 189.) Verbal forms with arkal are very frequently used in Tevaram and Nālāyirappirapantam. (e.g.) pukaļvārkaļ (they will praise) (T. 32.9). Hence it seems to be that the author of Viracoliyam has mentioned arkal side by side with ar, difficult to understand why he has not mentioned the terminations ar, or, pa and mar. The other grammarians have followed Tolkappiyagar. In the colloquial speech of the present day, the termination or is used in honorific singular and arkal both in honorific singular and plural. Uneducated

people use āṅga and āṅgō, the modified forms of ārkaļ. They may have had the same origin as īṅga or īṅgō.

 $T\dot{u}$, $T\dot{u}$: Nangülär states that $t\dot{u}$ and $T\dot{u}$ denote the past and the future tense.\(^1\) Cenāvaraiyar's opinion is that $t\dot{u}$ is used after the sign of all the three tenses, and $T\dot{u}$ after that of the past.\(^2\) Naccinārkkiniyar agrees with the latter.\(^3\) $[T\dot{u}$ is not included here since Cenāvaraiyar and Naccinārkkiniyar think that it is used only in the appellative verbs.\(^3\)

A, \tilde{a} , va: Whenever a is used, it is generally preceded by the cāriyai av. (e. g.) paraintana (they have been scraped) (P.N. 4.3); maruppu-p-pānnana (they are like horns) (P.N. 4.4.); but there are examples where it is used without it. (e. g.) tānnua (they will appear) (P. N. 4.5). \bar{A} is used in the negative sense. Tolkāppiyanār himself has used it so. (e.g.) nyirmey allana molimuta l-ākā (Tol. E. 60); but he has not expressly stated in any of his sūtras that it has negative sense. Nannūlār, seems to be the first grammarian to mention it,4 and the author of Hakkanavilakkam follows him.5

[The author of Viracoliyam mentions and which evidently shows that he takes the termination and the cariyai an together as termination. He does not mention ā or va.]

A NOTE ON KAĻ in ENKAĻ, ĪRKAĻ, ĀRKAĻ: According to Tolkāppiyaṇār, kaļ is optionally used as the pluralising

- Ra-v-v-o ţu-kara v-ummai-nikal p-allavum Ta-v-v-o ţ-igappu m-ctirvum.... (Na. 145.)
- Takara-v-ukaram müngu-kālattigkum urittú;
 Rakara-v-ukaram iganta-kālattigku urittú.
 (Tol. Col. 217, Cēnā.)
- 3. Ibid. (Tol. Col. 217, Nac.)
- Aā īrra palaviņ patarkkai
 Ā-v-ē etir-marai-k kanņa tākum. (Na. 329.)

narticle of agginal nouns. Its use may have subsequently been extended to uyartinai nouns also. (e.g.) manilarkal (men). In such cases it is added mostly to plural forms, thus making them double plurals. Verbal forms like ponar may be used as nouns also in Tamil in the sense of persons who went, and declined as ρουβιαί, ρουβιοιμί, etc. To the latter type of forms like φουβια. kal may have been added and thus forms like pāṇārkaļ may have come into being, in the sense of persons who went. (c.g.) colmālai colluvārkaļ...neļunkālam vāļvārā (those who compose songs will live for a long time) (P. T. 135, 10); here colluvarial means those who will say. Such forms were, perhaps, through confusion, treated as verbs. From such instances, hal should have become generalised as a pluralising particle in verbs also. Thus ponarkat, panirkat, etc. are cases of double plurals. Double plurals of this kind are found frequently used in Tevaram and Nalavirappirapantam, the literature written between the the 6th and 8th centuries A.D. But in the later literature they are not so frequent.

Here it would be very useful to bear in mind that ancient Canarese gal and modern Canarese galu which correspond to Tamil kal are not used in Canarese verbs and that likewise Telugu lu (= Tamil kal) is not used in Telugu verbs. It would not be difficult to infer from this that the use of kal as a pluralizing particle of verbs should have been developed as a special feature of Tamil during the course of its separate development, and that, prior to its separation from Telugu and Canarese, during what might be called the primitive Dravidian period, kal did not find any place in the formation of verbs. It would also be interesting to observe that Canarese gal or galu and Telugu ln which correspond to Tamil kal are occasionally used as the plural suffix in Canarese and Telugu, of rational nouns and pronouns? corresponding to syartinal nouns and pronouns in Tamil, and that, in Cilappatikaram for the first time, the form yankal occurs with hal in uvartinai, though no verbal form with hal is found there.

^{1.} C. D. G. pp. 555 to 563.

^{2.} Ibid. 224.

Such verbal forms with kal are found for the first time in the works of the 6th, 7th and 8th centuries A. D. like Tëvaram, and Nālāyirappirapantam. This induces me to suggest that Canarese, Telugu and Tamil may have been separated from one another between the age of Cilappatikāram (5th cent. A.D. circa.) and the age of Tēvāram and Nālāyirappirapantam (6th to 8th cent. A.D.).

IMITATION OF PANINI BY THE AUTHORS OF VIRA-CŌLIYAM AND PIRAYÖKAVIVEKAM: The author of Viracōliyam does not mention the verbal terminations separately but mentions them along with tense elements as tāu, tāl, ningāu, kirāu, kirāu, kirāu, etc. He has done so, perhaps because he thought that they should correspond to ti, si, mi, etc. the terminations in Sanskrit, which generally denote both tense and person.

The author of Pirayokavivekam has gone too far in importing unnecessarily the terms atmanepada and parasmaipada and explaining them with reference to the Tamil terminations. He states that parappaipatam (parasmaipada) is used at the end of finite verbs in kartari or active voice, the tan or arpanepalam (ātmanēpada) is used in kartari or active voice, karmaņi or passive voice or bhave or impersonal form. According to him parappaipatam is the termination which ends in a short vowel or has a penultimate short vowel. (e.g.) kû, ay, al, ar, etc.; ar panēpatam is that which ends in a long vowel or has a penultimate long yowel. (e.g.) mar, ai, ay, etc. Both the above terminations are appanepalam when they are used in the passive voice. roots which take both the above terminations are called upayatati (ubhayapadi). Thus the root camai (to cook) which has forms camaikkinganan, (he cooks) camaippān. (he will cook) camaikkingilan, (he does not cook) camaikkingan, (he cooks) camaippāņ, (he will cook) camaiyāņ (he will not cook) is upayapati; the root un with reference to the forms untiran unmar, untanai untan is ēkapati in arpaņēpatam and the same root with reference to the forms unku, untu, etc. is chapati in parappaibatam.

It is clear that this classification of terminations is quite against the nature of Tamil language and is done solely in imitation of Sanskrit Grammar. Even here it may be noted that in Sanskrit, if a root takes ātmanēpada terminations, it takes them in all persons in its conjugation in one tense or mood. (e.g.) karōmi, karōşi and karōti in the singular of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd persons present, respectively; but in Tamil, nuṭti, the first person singular past tense, is parappaipatam, unṭāy, the 2nd person singular in the same tense is drpanēpatam and unṭti, the 3rd person neuter singular in the same tense is parappaipatam. Besides, he says that the verbal form 'camaikhinrān is used when one cooks for another and camaikhinrān is used when one cooks for himself. Nowhere else is it said so; nor do I see any example in literature in support of this distinction.

Besides, he mentions that the form 'cattanal varappatum' as an example for bhāvēprayōga. This is exactly the translation of the Sanskrit sentence 'cattēna āgamyatē'. Such a sentence, though made up of Tamil words does not seem to me to be a Tamil sentence.\(^1\) His importation of bhāvēprayōga too is most inappropriate.

Another most curious point mentioned by him is that 'a' following 'n' in the form unnappalum, 'ā' following 'n' in unnaningan, 'n' following 'l' in colluka, 'l' following 'r' in ventika, ta in pukutaka, tai in irintaikka, ku in araikuvan are conjugational signs.² Is this not in direct imitation of Sanskrit?

By the way he mentions that he has imported the Sanskritic terms tin and tan in Tamil to make up for the want of Tamil words ending in 'n'. By such importation he does more harm than good. The terms tin and tan may be quite intelligible in Sanskrit grammar, but, in Tamil, they are not so, since the Tamil grammarians have not resorted to the devise of using pratyāhāra as in Sanskrit.

^{1.} P. V. 36 & its comm.

P. V. 41, comm.

^{3.} P. V. 36, comm.

3.22222112. TENSE AND TENSE-SIGNS:-Tolkāppiyapar says that there are three tenses past, present and future.1 He does not mention any suffix denoting tense. This fact is noticed by the commentators Cēṇāvaraiyar and Nacciṇārkkiṇiyar and they make mention of the same under the last sutra of Collatikaram in Tolkappiyam. But at the same time Tolkappiyanar mentions that the past tense is used to denote either the present or the future when such actions take place immediately,2 and that the past and the present tenses are used to denote the future for the sake of clearness.3 If distinct tense formations were definitely current in Tolkappiyanar's time, it would be difficult to account for his omission to deal with the distinctive signs for such formations. He mentions, however, three tenses and adds that one may be used for another under certain circumstances as stated above. It is impossible to see how he could speak of one tense form being used for another if it were true that in his days tense formations were not at all differentiated on the morphological side. I am inclined to suggest a solution for this difficulty. It may not be unreasonable to suppose that perhaps, Tolkappiyanar was only thinking of different tense-values when he mentioned three tenses; that some of his contemporaries may have begun to associate particular verbal forms with particular tense values through the frequency of particular use; and that, with reference to such forms, Tolkappivanar was probably indicating the circumstances under which overlapping in tense values might be recognised.

Kālan tāmē mūnreņa moļipa. (Tol. Col. 199.)
 Irappi nikalvi n-etirvi n-enzā
 A-m-mu-k kālamun kurippotuk koļļum
 Mey-n-nilai y-utaiya töņra l-ārē (ibid. 200.)

Vārā-k kālattu nikaļun kālattum
 Or-ānkū varāum viņai-c-cor kiļavi
 Iranta kālattu-k kurippotu kiļattal
 Virainta poruļa v-eumaņar pulavar. (ibid. 241.)

Vara-k kalattu vinai-c-cor kilavi Irappinu nikalvinuā cirappa-t töngum Ivarkai-y-un telivun kilakkun kālai. (ibid. 245.)

The author of Viracoliyam states that ta, no and you are added to roots to form the past participle, kigo, oning and on to form the present participle and kum, nm, m, to form the future participle. Its commentator gives the following as examples under the same stanza for the past participles:—piganta, pona and oya.

The author of Nannül seems to have analysed the above into t and a, kiju and a, etc. where t, kiju, etc. were taken as tense signs and a, the participial sign. According to him, t, t, t and iy denote the past tense, kiju, kijju and anijuju denote the present tense and pa and va denote the future, jiu and jium, and iiu and tium denote the past and the future, jiu and jium denote the past, kiu and kium denote the future, jiu and min denote the future, jiu the past and the future, iiu and iiu denote the future. Here it must be noted that the verbal terminations kiu, jiu, tiu, jiu, kium, jium, jium, jium are taken to denote not only the person and the number, but also the tense:

Since t becomes t and t respectively after t and t, and t and t, t and t may be regarded as the modification of t itself; and hence it seems to me that it would have been sufficient if Nannular had mentioned only t and t, as past tense signs.

Talu-v-in-pinph ta-ya-ya-v-igappi nikatci-y-ig-kan Otun-higa-ca-v-o t-aninga-v-an-kum-m-um m-dtuma kay Pētamaliya m-etirin-kan-ākum piravam-vantāl Etan-il-catiran tam-pilaiyāma l-iyaggi-k-koļļē. (V Tāt. 7.). Ta-ta-ra-v-or r-iv-r-2 y-aim-pal mu-v-itattic Izanta këlan tarun-toli l-itai-nilai, (Na. 142.) Animra kinra kir-ma v-itattin Aim-pēl nikaļ-poļu t-agai-viņai y-itai-nilai. (ibid. 143.) Pa-v-va mū-v-itat t-ai-m-pā l-etir-polutii Icai-vinoi y-itai-nilai y-ām-ivai cila-v-ila. (ibid. 144.) Re-v-v-o tukara v-ummai-nikal p-alla-vum To-v-v-v t-irappu m-etiruum ta-v-v-atit Kalivum ka-v-v-ö t-etirvum-min n-eval Viyankā l-i-m-ma r-etirvum pantam Celavotu varavum ceyyu-nikal p-etiroum Etir-marai mummai-yu m-ērku m-tūkē, (ibid. 145.)

ORIGIN OF THE TENSE SIGN 'IN':—The tense sign 'in' comes after the roots ending in \hat{n} . It seems to me that the final \hat{n} of the roots was changed to i before y^{i} so that the forms $a_i a_i a_i k k i y a_i$ (P. N. 6. 25.) were formed. The roots like $p \hat{n}$ took only p as the past tense sign so that the form $p \hat{n} p \hat{n} p \hat{n}$ was current. Later on the forms like $a_i a_i k k i y a_i$ gave place to those like $a_i a_i k k i y a_i$ so that 'in began to be considered as the past tense sign. In the indeclinable participle i alone is added in such cases to represent the past tense as $a_i a_i k k i$, $a_i p a_i k i$, etc. Thus 'i' which was originally the modified form of \hat{n} in sandhi may have come to be regarded as a part of the past tense sign.

Besides, there are a few roots in Tamil, as Dr. Caldwell says, which formed their past tense in the ancient period without the addition of any tense sign, but by the reduplication of the final consonant. (e.g.) pukkayar (they entered) (Cilap. 342, 196). But even in the ancient period such forms began generally to be superseded by the more regular forms formed by adding tense to roots. (e.g.) pukuntu (Cilap. 574, 14).

As regards the future tense, it seems to me that it may have been in its origin later than the past, for it is possible for the primitive people to remember some of their past deeds and express them to others before they begin to think of the future. This is clearly seen in the case of children. The only future that would have been possible then was that conveyed by the command which is expressed by the imperative second person.

The present tense may, in all probability, have been the last in the formation, since it is not quite necessary on the part of a speaker to express to another what is actually happening since he himself is witnessing it. The present tense forms in Tamil with the signs kingu, āningu, etc. are almost absent in the works of Sangam period. I was able to find out one form cērkinga in Paripāṭal (p. 163, 35). Such forms are very frequent only in the literature of the medieval period. (e.g.) enkingūļi in each of 10 stanzas in Tēvāram, pp. 25 and 26; enkingūļī in Periyatīrumoļī

Yakerom veru-vali y-ikaran kuzukum Ukara-k kilavi tuvara-t tönzötü. (Tol. E. 411.)

of Nālāyirappirapantam, pp. 154 and 155; cellāninga āṇṭū (T. A. S. i. 14); parrāningārai (T. 1. 51).

The forms unkigan, unkingan, unnaningan, unnakitantan, unnaviruntan appear to me to have been two words which were. later on, mistaken for one; for the commentator on Viracoliyam says that the forms ningān, kitantān, iruntān, etc., are derived from the roots nil, kita, irn, etc. and are used as the personal terminations after roots in the present tense. Cenavaraiyar, a commentator on Tolkäppiyam repeats the same thing. Hence และเลิ and และสิน were, at one time, two words of which แกนลั was a participle (modified form of ngnū) and ningān was the finite verb. This may be seen from the following two examples:iravā ningān (Kampar. A. 239. 38.); tērgā ningān (Kampar. A. 249. 52.) where iravā and tērrā are affirmative indeclinable participles. Later on mil of migran in unnamingan began to be taken as an auxiliary verb. 'Unnaniuran should have originally meant the is eating', the past tense ningan being used to denote the immediateness of the action. The above explanation holds good for the forms unnauingan, unnakitanian and unnaviruntan. But what should have been the origin of unkiran and unkingan? The form unkiren which is very often used in colloquial speech is said to be the later form by Naccinārkkiniyar2 and it is not generally found in Tamil classics up to 12th century. Hence it may be considered to have been the modified form of unkinran. The form akinga as the finite verb is found in the following lines of Purananūrū:-

Pennuruwu oru-tiyan ökinyü (the form of a woman is on one side). (P.N. 1.7.)

Pirai-nutal vannam-ā kingā (crescent forms a source of beauty to the forehead), (P.N. 1.9.)

Nil ennun tāturiņiņgā izanta-kāla-p-patarkkaiyil ningāņ mutoliya pirattiyayankaļ nikal-kāla-p-paruļil varum. (V. K. 4, comm.)

Unkirēn-ena-k kiru enpatū nikaļkālam uņartlutat i-k-kālavaļakkū. (Tol. Col. 202, Nac.)

This may have been formed from \tilde{a} (root) + ku (cāriyai) + iu (cāriyai) + $r\tilde{u}$ (the neuter sign termination). Could $\tilde{a}kin\tilde{p}\tilde{a}u$ have been formed by adding $\tilde{a}u$ to $\tilde{a}kin\tilde{p}\tilde{u}$ mistaking it to be the indeclinable participle? Or as Dr. Graul, Dr. Gundert and M. J. Vinson opine, $kin\tilde{p}\tilde{u}$ may have been formed from k a sign of the future in Tamil and $in\tilde{p}\tilde{u}$ meaning now.

The author of Nannul plainly says that kirn and kingu and aningu are the present tense signs, though k of kirn and kingu in forms like unkingu and unkingu is the final element of the previous word, like unkin, and irn is the initial element of the following word, and ā of āningu in the form like unnaningu is the final element of the affirmative indeclinable participles like unna, and ungu is the initial element of unguy.

In modern times, the past perfect, the present perfect and the future perfect are used with a past participle and the finite verbal form in the past, present and future of the root iru. e. g. ceytii iruntāṇ (he had done), ceytiirukkiṇṇāṇ (he has done), ceytii irunpāṇ (he would have done). Similarly, the forms of the past perfect continuous, the present perfect continuous and the future perfect continuous are also found. e.g. ceytukoṇṭiruntāṇ, ceytukoṇṭirunkkiṇṇāṇ, ceytukoṇṭirunpāṇ.

The past and the future tenses may respectively correspond to the agrist and the second future in Sanskrit. The causal verbs also are used in all the three tenses in the same way as simple verbs. The latter is formed by adding to the root, the tense sign and the personal termination, while the former by adding to the root, the causal suffix vi or pi, the tense sign and the personal terminations or by adding the tense sign and the personal terminations to the causal form of the root as $\bar{a}kk\bar{u}$, $tirutt\bar{u}$, etc.

3.2222212. ACTIVE NEGATIVE VOICE: Tolkappiyanar has hinted about the active negative voice in his statement that case-suffixes will be used even after nouns qualifying a

^{1.} C. D. G. 494 and J. A. Onzieme Serie Tome XIII, p. 116,

negative verb,1 and also has mentioned the term *etirmagai* in the satra

Ecca v-ummai-y-u m-vlirmarai y-ummai-y-um Tattam-un mayanku m-utanilai y-ilavē.

(Tol. Col. 283,)

From the literature of the Sangam and medieval periods we may infer that the negation was expressed in six ways:—

- (1) By inserting the negative particle al between the root and the personal termination.
 - (c, g.) cel-l-al-am (we will not go). (P.N. 101.1.) agi-y-al-an (he does not know). (P.N. 239.9.)
- (2) By inserting the negative particle al or il between the tense sign and the personal termination.
 - (e. g.) cirantagrii (it is not desirable), (P.N. 75.5.)

 urai-t-til-ay (he did not say). (P.T. 205.12.)

 kan-t-til-ey (I have not seen). (P.T. 202.2.)
- (3) By inserting al followed by the personal terminations after the affirmative finite forms of verbs.
 - (e.g.) muyankinēn-allēn (1 was not befooled). (P.N. 19.7.) celvēm allēm (we will not go). (P.N. 36.11.) ollān allan (he will not agree). (P.N. 97.21.) peruvār-alar (they will not receive). (P.T. 200.5.)
- (4) By inserting the vowel & between the root and the tense sign. (This is seen clearly in the third person neuter singular.)
 - (e.g.) ākātā (it will not become). (Tol. E. 71.)

 mutalātā (it will not commence). (Tol. E. 65.)

 pēņātā (it will not agree). (T. 2.6.)
- (5) By adding the personal terminations directly to the root.
 - (e.g.) kāṇēṇ (I will not see). (P.N. 71.5.) oilāy (you will not agree). (P.N. 31.6.)

Etir-maguttu moli-y-in-un tatta marapiz Parunilai tiriya pegrumai-c colle, (Tol., col., 107.)

oliāu (he will not agree). (P.N. 78.9.) vaiyārkaļē (They will not despise).(P.T. 204.10.)

(6) By lengthening the a of roots like var1 and adding the personal terminations.

(e.g.) vārēm (we will not come). (P.N. 145.4.)

The author of Viracoliyam states that dy, dl, dr, drhal, dti, ā, ilay, ilaļ, ilar, ilarhal, ilath, ila and others like atōļi are added after roots to denote taṭai-p-porul or negative meaning.² Its commentator adds that the verbs having the first six terminations denote the future tense, and the verbs having the next six denote the past tense when they (ilan, etc.) are preceded by t, as in naṭantilay, and the present tense when they are preceded by k, as in naṭakkilay. But I am at a loss to know why he did not add the first and the second personal terminations along with the first six and alen, alan, alan, alan, etc. along with the next six.

The authors of Nannul and Hakkanavilakkam have stated about the negative voice only with respect to \bar{a} , the termination of the neuter plural. It is the Rev. C. J. Beschi who has definitely stated that in magai-vinai personal terminations are directly added to roots without any tense sign between them and that $\bar{a}t\bar{n}$ is the termination that is added to the root in the third person neuter singular.

At present we have certain forms of verbs which are common both to affirmative and negative voices, ceyyāy and ceyyār, the second person singular and plural forms respectively. The indeclinable participles ceyyā, unṇā also come under that category.

^{1.} It seems to me that the root in varukingan and varuvan was originally var, though in modern times va is taken to be the root of. Tel. ra (come.)

Ān-aļ-ār-ērkaļ-oţ-ātu-ā-v-ilaŋ-magg-ilaḍ-ilar-um
Tān-ām-ilarka ḥ-ilatu-ila-tātu-t taṭai-p-poruṭ-kaŋ
Mēṇām-uraitta marapē-varumikka v-ātoḥi-muṇ
Nānāvuļamaggu naggaṭai-maṇṇum pirattiyamē.

The author of Ilakkaņakkottū gives the following examples to illustrate the identity of viti or affirmative form and marai or negative form. (e.g.) vallār tirai koļuppar (the weak will pay tribute), vallār tirai koļuar (the strong will take tribute), aruļāņ (one who has the favour or one who has not the favour), vakuļāņ (one who is irritable or one who is not irritable). 1 C.]. Beschi says nāvāṇ is common to both (It means, he won't suffer or he will suffer). Similarly one of the commentators on Naṇṇūl says that cāvāṇ means, either he will die or he won't die.

These examples show that the fact whether they denote negation or assertion is ascertained either from the context or perhaps from the difference in the position of the accent. As regards the words like cryydy and cryyir, they seem to have had the accent on the first syllable if they denoted assertion and on a or i if they denoted negation. Originally, they may have been respectively imperative second person singular and plural. The same may have been pronounced with such a tone as to convey interrogative sense as is done even now. From such interrogative uses, the negative meanings of such forms may have been developed.

WHAT IS THE ORIGIN OF A OF ATU IN MUTALATU? VARATU, Etc. A is said by Tolkappiyanar to be one of the terminations added to verbal themes to denote neuter plural, and it is not stated there that it denotes neuter plural only in the negative voice; but he uses such verbs as ākā in Tol. E. 60, navilā in Tol. E. 74, mikā in Tol. E. 263 only with a negative meaning. The author of Nannūl has definitely stated that ā is used to denote neuter plurals only in the negative voice. Hence I think that ā began to be considered in the earliest times as the particle of negation in neuter plural. Afterwards, forms

Vollār tigai-koļvar, vollār tigai-koļuppar; . . aruļān vekuļān īvai col-l-oņgē viti-viņaiyum magai-viņai-y-um-āyiņa. (I K. p. 39.)

Aā tra pala-v-iņ pajarkkai
 A-v-ē etir-mazai-k kaņņa tākum. (Na. 329.)

If so, how are we to account for the participial form ceyyā in ceyyāningān which denotes affirmation. Tolkāppiyanār has not mentioned it. Cēṇāvaraiyar says that ceyyā was changed to ceyyā. Hence ā of the verbal participle ceyyā in ceyyāningān is not a negative particle. Later on, reyyā may have heen used as a negative participle also.

3.2222213. PASSIVE AFFIRMATIVE VOICE: Tolkappiyanar has not stated anything about the passive affirmative voice or viti-c-ccyappaṭṭuviṇai as is called by the author of llakkaṇakkottū. But in connection with the third case he (Tolkappiyaṇar) states that the third case-suffix is used to denote the karlā or the doer of the action also. This is possible only if passive voice was current in his time. Besides he uses the expression cya-p-paṭupa in Tol. E. 1. But passive forms are rare in the literature of the ancient period. (e.g.) kaippaṭukkappaṭṭāy ni (Ka. T. Vol. 2. 548. 15). In the literature and inscriptions of the medieval period, verbs in passive voice are frequently used.

(e.g.) toyyappattadu (it was done). (Ep. I. Vol. XVII, Part VII. V. G. p. 330, line 30 & 31.)

irakkappattadu (it was taken down). (Ibid. line 112.) ayyappattadu (it was said so). (Ibid. line 110.)

kudukkappattadu (it was given). (I.A. Vol. 22, p. 71 M. M.P.) (for kodukkappattadú.)

ilittapperukuvatūkavum (so that it may be despised). (S. I. I. ii, 509.)

kattappattu (having been built). (T. 20, 6.)

Yā-v-en viņā-v-u m-ā-y-iya ririyātā. (Vol. E. 176.)

^{2.} A-v-ö jallatú yakara mutalátú. (ibid. 65.)

Etir-marai-k-kan marai-y-unarttum itai-nilai-y-u m-unmaiyan. (Vol. Col. 450, Cens.)

On the basis of these later passive formations, the author of Viracoliyam has stated that in the *karmakāraka* or passive voice, the root pain, or some other one is added to the original root followed by 'a' and then the personal terminations are added. Its commentator mentions taku in addition to pain. From the fifth example mentioned above, the root peru also may be added to the list.

The author of Nannül has not mentioned anything about it. The author of Pirayökavivêkam mentions it in the commentary on P. V. 36. The author of llakkanakkottů agrees with the author of Viracöliyam and adds that the active form itself may be used for the passive.² Examples for the latter are found in the Sangam works.

vaļaii (for vaļaikkappaţţu) (having been surrounded). (P.N. 18, 1.)

talii for (taluvappattu) (having been adhered to). (Pattu. 224, 301.)

It seems to me that, before the time of Viracoliyam and even for some time after him, the expressions arryappattun, arryatta-kunan may have been viewed as made up of two words arrya and pattun and arrya and takunan. This is perhaps the reason why Nannülär has not mentioned it. Besides, passive voice is also formed, as Dr. Caldwell says, 'by means of the preterite verbal participle of any neuter active verb followed by the preterite third person singular neuter of the verbs to become, to be, to go, or occasionally to end.' (e.g.) ata matintatu, (it was finished); ata matintayirru (it was finished). Sometimes, expressions like ati anton for atikkappattun also are used. I quite agree with Dr.

Viņai-k-kurippēţū karumum-paţarkkaiyin mikka-v-ongai
 Anaittennalām-a-v voţu-paţu-t-tātu-pinn-am-iyagkai
 Taŋai-k-karumam-perun tātu-k-kan-maggum paţu-viņai pēl
 Ninoikku-varu-mag g-ivaiyum-peyarcco nikorttiţumā. (V.

к, 11.)

^{2.} I. K. p. p. 44 and 45.

^{3.} C. D. G. 464.

Caldwell that in colloquial Tamil "the root patu is sometimes added even to intransitive roots and sometimes to denote, other than passive signification." (e.g.) nan nangay cappitappattawan does not mean. I have been well-eaten, but I am accustomed to eat well!"

But on the whole, the genius of the Tamil language is to avoid the passive voice as far as possible. This is one of the important points where Tamil differs from Sanskrit.

3.2222214. PASSIVE NEGATIVE VOICE. The passive negative voice is formed in the same way as the passive affirmative voice, except that the particles of negation are added here to the roots followed by such auxiliary verbs as pape. Hence the following forms may be had:

cirakkappattalangu (it is not considered advisable).
kāṇappattilalu (it was not found).
uraikkappattingu (it was not said).
kāṇappatēṇ (I will not be found).
kāṇappatāṇ (he will not be found).
kāṇappatāṇ (it will not be found).
kāṇappatāṇ (it will not be found).

Such a use of negative voice is not at all found in Sanskrit and is a peculiar development in Tanul language.

3.222222. IMPERATIVE MOOD: 3.2222221. AFFIRMA-TIVE VOICE: Tolkāppiyaṇār mentions that the form ceyyōy of the second person singular is sometimes used as cey² and in such cases ī or ē preceded by a suitable consonant is added after it,³ as ceṇṛū (from the root cet) and niṇmē (from the root nil). This evidently holds good in the affirmative voice. He has not definitely stated the exact forms that should be used in the imperative mood. But from the literature of the Sangam period we

^{1.} Ibid. 468.

Ceyyā y-ennu munniloi viņai-c-cor Cey-y-en kilozi y-ākiţa n-uţaitte. (Tol. Col. 450.)

Munnilai munna r š-y-u m-ē-y-um
 Annilai marapin mey-y-ūrntu varumē. (ibid. 451).

are able to understand that the forms cayyay, cay, cayyi, cayyi and cayyai were used as second person singular and cayyir and caymin as second person plural in the affirmative voice of the imperative mood.

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(e.g.) ariyāy (know). (A.N. 268, 1.)

kēļ (listen). (Pattu. 131, 38.)

cel (go). (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 477, 32.)

varaiti (allot). (P.N. 8, 7.)

centī (go). (Ka. T. Vol. 542, 15.)

kaņṭī (find). (Ibid. 542, 8.)

kēṭṭai (listen). (Ibid. 546, 23.)

kāṇār (sec). (Cilap. 209, 12, & 265, 226.)

cērmiņ (reach). (P.N. 9, 5.)
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In the literature of the medieval period, the form coyminkal formed by adding kal to the plural form coymin is frequently used, (e.g.) toluminkal (T. 32, 9.) cērminkalē (P.T. 58, 1).

The author of Viracoliyam mentions that the root form like cey is used as the second person singular, the forms like ceynum, ceynum and ceynum as honorific singular and the forms like ceyyumkal and ceynumkal as the second person plural in the affirmative voice of the imperative mood.¹

As regards the form exymm it was used at the time of Tolkäppiyanar only as the third person singular and third person neuter plural in the indicative mood?. If that is so, we have to explain how the same form began to be used in honorific singular of the second person imperative mood at the time of Viracolliyam. It seems to me that the latter form is not the same csyyum but is

Ohkāta-munnilai-p pāl-ēval-ākkā l-orumary-ir-cu-p Pāhkār-cirappilā mēyu-min-ka-p-panmai y-ām-itattu Nihkāta-minkaļuh kaļļām-icai-v-in-ir ka-v-v-enpatān Tāhkā-p-parākka-t tiņir-pālumām-enpar tāļ-kuļalē.
 (V. K. 9.)

Pollër patarkkai munpilai tanmai
 A-v-vayin münzu nikolun kālattu-c
 Ceyyu m-ennun kilavi-y-otu kollā. (Tol. Col. 227.)

the corrupted form of ceymin or ceymin through the intermediate stage ceynm. Still the old form ceynum was used in the Tolkäppiyan sense by Kampar—malai-k-hungamanaiyān varum (Kampar. A. 214. 2.), kavyai-k-kaiyinerikkum (Kampar. A. 220. 11). In the colloquial speech of modern days ceyyum is used only in the honorific singular. The form ceyyāmē may have been originally used in the sense that us go' where 'us' refers to the person spoken to and the speaker and then was used as the second person honorific singular. But this form seems to be extinct now.

Nannülär follows the author of Vicacoliyam as regards the singular but mentions the termination min alone as regards the plural.²

At the present day the forms that are used in the affirmative voice of the imperative mood, in colloquial speech, are the same as those mentioned by the author of Viracollyam except the form cosystand.

It seems to me that the form ceyya vēṇṭum has also been used in the imperative mood since the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār.³ This form appears to be a kind of periphrastic formation made up of the gerundial form of a root followed by vēṇṭum—the future form of the root vēṇṭu primarily signifying request. Perhaps this periphrastic formation was devised to supply the gap in the first and third persons in the imperative system.

3.2222222. NEGATIVE VOICE: Tolkappiyanar has not definitely stated any form to represent the negative voice in the

Nota-vā maţi-ci viţu-kū vē-vai
 No-p-ţō vau-v-uri fi-un-porun tirun-tiŋ
 Têy-pār cel-vav vāţ-kē ţ-a - keŋrū
 Eytiya v-irupāŋ māŋrā m-irravum
 Cey-y-e ŋ-ēval viŋai-p-pakā-p ţatamē. (Na. 137.)

Ir-ir irra iranju m-iru-tinai-p Panmai munnilai min-avar revol. (Na. 337.)

Itu-ceyal vēņţu m-ennuñ kilavi
 Iru-vayi nilaiyum poruţ-ţ-ā kum-mē
 Tanpā l-ānum piraŋ-pā l-ānum. (Tol. Col. 243.)

imperative mood, though he has used the two words align and afteal in the second person singular, imperative negative voice in Tol. Porul. 146. But from the literature of the different periods we may say that the following forms ceyyal, ceyyāy, ceyyāli, ceyyāl were used in the singular and ceyyār in the plural. (e.g.)

peyaral (do not change). (P. N. 3. 14.)

ēkal (do not go). (Kampar. A. 225. 19.)

nisikāy (do not go away). (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 470. 21.)

niliāti (do not stand). (Ibid. 468. 21.)

ni aļiyēl (do not feel sorry). (Kampar. A. 225. 18.)

ayarēl (do not feel sorry). (Kampar. A. 239. 38.)

ayarīr (Plural), (Kampar. A. 275. 87.)

Besides it seems the form ceyyuvēṇṭā was used both in the singular and the plural. (e.g.) ut varuntavēṇṭā (P. N. 101, 10).

In modern times the forms that are used in colloquial speech are cryyty or cryythe in the singular, cryytheyum in the honorific singular and cryythe or cryytheyunkal in the plural.

It appears that, at the time of Tolkäppiyanär and the author of Viracöliyam, the imperative mood expressed not only command but also request, wish, etc. more or less in the same way as the imperative in Sanskrit. This is clearly seen from the statements of Tolkäppiyanär¹ and the author of Viracöliyam² that the optative mood is used only in the third person singular and plural. But at the time of Nannulär, it seems to me that the imperative began to be restricted only to denote command and the optative began to be used to denote wish, request, etc. since he says that the optative forms like celka, celliya and celliyar could be used in both singular and plural of all persons.

Avarruļ Munnilai taņmai y-ā-y-ī-r iļattoţū Mannā t-ākum viyānkāţ kiļavi. (Tol. Col. 226.)

Ońkata-magyilai-p-pāl-ēval-ākkā l-orumai-y-iç-cu-p Pańkār-ciţappila mē-y-u mig-ka-p-pagmai-y-ām-iţattū Nīnkāta-migkaļ-uŭ kaļ-ţ-ām-icai-v-igiţka-v-v-eppatān Tāṅkā-p-parökka-t t-ig-iţ-pālum-ām-eppar-tāl-kuļalē.

There is one difference between the imperative mood in Tamil and that in Sanskrit; in the former, it is used only in the second person, except in the case of instances like ceyyavēnjum which appear to represent a type of periphrastic imperative formation as explained above, whereas in the latter, it is used in all persons.

3.222233. OPTATIVE MOOD; 3.2222331. AFFIRMA-TIVE VOICE: Active voice in the optative mood in Tamil verbs expresses request, injunction, wish, etc. in the same way as the Sanskrit potential, and benediction as the Sanskrit benedictive. Tolkappiyanar mentions that viyanköl or optative mood is used only in the third peson, both singular and plural where it has the same form in āṣpāl, peṇṇāl, palarpāl, oṇraṇṇāl and palariṇṇāl.¹ But what its form is he does not seem to have mentioned. He uses the verbs arital and kālṭal as optative mood in Tol. Col. 458 and 463 respectively.

The author of Viracoliyam agrees with Tolkappiyanar in the meaning and the use of the optative mood and improves upon him by saying that its from is obtained by adding 'ka' to the roots.² Nannülär differs form them both in its application and the form. It is used in all persons and numbers and the forms mentioned are coyka, coyyiya and coyyiyar.³ The author of Ilakkanavilakkam agrees with Nannülär in its application, but as regards its formation he adds the forms ending in al, al, um, mär and al.⁴

Eñciya kiļavi y-iţattoţû civaņi
 Ai-m-pāţku m-uriya tönţa l-āţē, (Tol. Col. 225,)
 Avaṛuļ
 Munnilai tanmai y-ā-y-ī-r iţattoţû
 Mannā t-ākum viyankāţ kiļavi. (ibid. 226.)

^{2.} V. K. 9. See F. N. p. 180, 2.

Ka-ya-v-otu ra-v-v-ot t-teta viyankā!
 Iyalu m-iţam-pā l-eńku m-enpa. (Na. 338.)

Ka-ya-v-oţū ra-v-v-oţ ţ-al-al um-mār Ai-kā nīţţa viyankön muţţavoi Eytu m-iţam-pā l-enku m-enpa. (I. V. 239.)

The opinion of the author of the Ilakkaņaviļakkam seems to me to be the most acceptable when we take into consideration the forms used in the literature from the Sangam period onwards. He has himself given quotations in his commentary on the sūtra 239. The following may be added to them.

vāļiya nī (May you live long). (Ka. T. Vol., 2, 583, 21.) vāļiyar yāṇ (May I live long). (P. N. 365, 9.) vāḷiyar pala (May many prosper). (P. N. 371, 23.) nī vāḷiyar (May you live long). (P. N. 137, 14.) caytēṇ ākuka (May I be considered to have done it). (P. N. 71, 9.)

celvai y-ākuvai (May you be considered to have gone). (P. N. 70, 15.)

(The last two may be regarded as periphrastic formations.) In addition to these it seems the form coyyāy also was used in the second person singular of the affirmative voice of the optative mood. (e.g.) kāvāy kövē (Ohking! may you protect). (Kampar. A. 241. 41.)

In colloquial speech such forms as rālattum, vālakkatavās vālakkatavās etc., are generally used in the third person.

3.2222232. NEGATIVE VOICE: In the negative voice such forms as 'peyaral' formed by adding the negative particle al to the root are found. e.g., nin cor peyaral (P. N. 3. 14.) which means 'may your command never change'. They may have arisen under the following conditions:—Forms like peyardy-alläy may have been in use in the second person singular similar to celvēm allēm (P. N. 36, 11) in the first person plural, oilān allan (P. N.97, 21) in the third person singular. Then peyarāy-allāy may have been reduced to peyar-al in the same way as ceyyāy to cey. Or forms like peyar-alāy may have been in use similar to cellalam (P. N. 101, 1), arīyalam (P.N. 239, 9.) and they may have been reduced to peyar-al.

In colloquial Tamil at present the form $v\bar{u}l\bar{u}y\bar{u}ka$ (I wish you not to prosper) is generally used in the negative voice. This may be considered to be a periphrastic formation made up of 2

negative verb in the negative voice of the indicative mood and the optative affirmative form āks of the root ā'.

3.222224. ECCAM OR INFINITIVE MOOD: Eccam is primarily divided into two classes payar-accam and vigat-y-eccam.

3.2222241. PEYAR-ECCAM: Poyar-eccam corresponds to the participle in Sanskrit. It is of four kinds:—active affirmative relative participle, active negative relative participle, passive affirmative relative participle and passive negative relative participle. Each of these may be further divided into three according as it denotes the past, present or future action. Invariably each qualifies a noun following it.

3.22222411. ACTIVE AFFIRMATIVE RELATIVE PAR-TICIPLE: According to Tolkappiyanar the form ceyto is the past active affirmative relative participle and the form coygum is both the present and the future active affirmative relative participle.1 The finite verbs, which take 'ip' as in wrankingn to denote the past, have their active affirmative relative participle in the form urankiya. (e.g.,) man tininta nilanum (The land full of earth) (P. N. 2. 1.); nilan čutiva vicumbum (The sky which is above the land) (P.N. 2. 2.); mutti-vilakkil tuñcum porköttimayamum (P. N. 2, 23, 24.) (The Himalayas with gold peaks where sleep (the deer) in the light of triad-fire). Here tuncum is the present relative participle; tenpula vāļnarkku arunkatan irukkum . putations (sons who offer oblations to manes residing in the south) (P. N. 9, 3). Here igukkum is the future relative participle. The form ceykings as the present active affirmative relative participle is searcely found anywhere in Sangam works. I came across the word 'cērkinga' in the sentence 'cērkinga kankavin, in Paripātal (Pari. 163, 35). This may be taken as a participial noun in the plural number meaning "those that join" and qualifying the plural noun kay. The form 'iravaninga, which is found in Kural 1157 may be explained in the same way.

Nilayum poruļ-uk kālam-uk karuvi-y-um Viņai-mutar kiļavi-y-um viņai-y-u m-uļa-p-paļa A-v-v-aru poruţkum-ā r-apņa v-urimaiya Ceyyuň ceyta v-eŋpuñ collē. (Tol. Col. 234.)

But in the literature and inscriptions of the medieval period, present active affirmative participles of the forms ceykinga and ceyydninga are found in large numbers.

(e.g.) celvam-uyarkinga celvar (Rich men who are becoming richer). (T. 1, 5.) cellāninga āṇṭu (The year which is passing). (T. A. S. i. 14.)

It also seems to me that the form ceykiga was very frequent. in colloquial speech of that period. Hence the author of the Viracolivam says that the present participle is formed by adding kina, aninga or an to the root. The past participle is formed according to him by the addition of ta, na or ya and the future participle by that of hum or um. In the example cry cotton, he seems to take cev and cattan as separate words where cev is the present active affirmative relative participle which is formed by adding the participle on (corresponding to su, the nominative singular suffix in Sanskrit) which is evidently dropped afterwards. This is done by him only to get the designation pada to cey, since, according to him, pada is 'suphrhantam.' But ceycuttan may be taken as a compound and hence it would have been better if he had omitted it. In kira and aninga mentioned by him it seems to me that 'a' is the sign of the participle and kiynand aniagu are the present tense signs. I do not know why he failed to mention the form ceykinga which was frequently used in the works that were written before his time.

The author of Nangūl follows him, but substitutes the form ceykinga for the form ceykina. The author of the llakkaņaviļakkam

Pētamali-y-u m-etirin-kan-ākum piravum-vantāl Ētam-il catirān-tam-pilai-y-ā ma l-iyagri-k-kolļē.

(V. Tat. 7.)

Ceyta ceykinga ceyyum-en-paţţil
Kālam-uñ ceyal-un töngi-p-pal-oţu
Ceyva t-ati agu-paruţ peyarum
Enco nigpatu peyar-ec cam-m-ê. (Na. 340.)

^{1.} Tāfu-v-iṣ-piṣpu tā-ṇā-yā-v-iṭappi nikaṭci-y-iṇ-kaṇ Otuṣ-kiṭa-cu-v-v-oṭ-āniṇṭa-v-āṅ-kum-m-um m-ōṭū-ma&kān

follows Nannülär.1

3.22222412. ACTIVE NEGATIVE RELATIVE PARTICI-PLE: In the ancient period only the form coyyāta seems to have been in use and it may have been used in all tenses. (e.g.) payan illāta col (word which is of no use) (K, 198). Even now the form coyyōta is used in all tenses though more frequently in the past and the future; (e.g.)

itai-c-ccyyāta paiyan aţikkappaṭṭān (the boy who did not do this was heaten). (Colloq.)

ttai-c-ceyyāta paiyan aļikkappaļukirān (the boy who does not do this is beaten). (Colleg.)

itai-c-ceyyāta paiyan aţikkappaţuvān (the boy who will not do this will be beaten). (Colleg.)

Besides the form coyyāta, the periphrastic forms coyyāmul irunta, coyyāmul irukkinga and coyyāmul irukkum are respectively used in the past, present and future tenses.

3.22222413. PASSIVE AFFIRMATIVE RELATIVE PARTICIPLE. In the works of the ancient period perhaps except in Kural it seems that there was no form belonging to this class. In the later periods the forms ceyyappatta, ceyyappatukinga and ceyyappatum are used in the past, present and future tense respectively. (e.g.)

kuyavanār coyyappaṭṭa kuṭam (pot which was made by the potter). (Colloq.)

taccanār ceyya ppaļukinga nārkāli (chair which is made by the capenter). (Colloq.)

aracanār katļappaļum māļikai (palace built by the king). (Colloq.)

3.22222414. PASSIVE NEGATIVE RELATIVE PARTI-CIPLE: As in the case of forms of passive affirmative relative

Avarruļ
 Ceyta ceykinga ceyyum-en pāṭṭil
 Ceyva t-āṭi oru-poruṭ peyar-oṭū
 Muṭiyu muṣaiyatū peyar-ec cam-m-ē. (I, V, 243.)

participle, it seems to me that there were no forms for this in the ancient period except in Kūraļ. In the later periods, the form coyyappaţāta was used in all tenses. In modern times the periphrastic forms coyyappaţāmal-irunta, coyyppaţāmal irukkiŋra and coyyappaţāmal-iruhkum are also found used in the past, present and future tenses respectively. (e.g.) kēṭkappaṭāta cevi (K. 416).

The author of the Pirayökavivékam says that the suffix denoting the active participles corresponds to śatr protyaya and kānac protyaya in Sanskrit and the passive participles like coyyappatta end in kānacpratyaya. It must be noted here that śatr and kānac in gaccan and gamyamāna are two entirely different pratyayas, while 'a' in ceyta and ceyyappatta is one and the same.

3.22222415. WHAT IS THE ORIGIN OF 'A', THE END-ING OF THE PRESENT AND PAST PARTICIPLES CEYKINRA. IRAVANINRA, CEYTA, ETC. ? From the use of the words ceykinga and igavaninga in the Paripatal and the Kurall respectively qualifying plural nouns kan and valai, it seems to me that ceykinga, igavāninga and ceyta may have been the nominative neuter planals of the neuter singular forms coykingu, gravanigrit,2 ceytit, when they were used as participial nouns. I have already shown at some length how the finite verbal forms could be used as participial nouns and declined in all cases. Originally they may have been used to qualify neuter plural souns, but later on, since the neuter plural nouns like kan, valui, etc. had the same form as the singular as an alternative for kankal, valaikal, etc. the words like caykinga may have been used along with singular nouns and later on may have been used to qualify all kinds of nouns. Dr. Caldwell thinks3 that 'a' is a possessive case sign; but I have already shown that the possessive case sign 'a' mentioned by Nannullar may have evolved from 'a' the sign of the neuter plural in verbs.

Ceykinga kan. (Pari. 163, 35.)
 Izavaninga valai. (K. 1157.)

^{2.} Ceykingü:—cey (root) + ku (cāriyai) + iņ (cāriyai) + rū (neuter singular termination.)

^{3.} C. D. G. 523.

3.2222242. VINAI-Y-ECCAM: Vinai-y-eccam corresponds to indeclinable past participles like Sanskrit gatvā and gerunds like gantum in Sanskrit, and infinitive verbal forms denoting condition and cause, which are not found in Sanskrit.

The indeclinable past participles are of two kinds—the affirmative past participle and the negative past participle. The affirmative indeclinable past participial forms are according to Tolkāppiyaṇār ceytū, ceyyū and ceypū. He does not mention the negative indeclinable past participial forms; but uses the form kollātū in Tol. Col. 198, and this form is frequently used in literature. (e.g.) vāyū miātū kāyū pukkēm (we entered the palace without informing the gate-keeper) (P. N. 67. 10). According to Tolkāppiyaṇār, the forms that are gerunds are ceyyiyar, ceyyiya, ceyaṛkū, ceyteṇa and ceya, and the form that is used as infinitive denoting condition is ceyiṇ.¹—

CEYTÜ: This is formed, I think, by adding to the root cey. It denotes an action done previous to that which is denoted by the verb which it qualifies. (e.g.) ceytù vantān. It may be noted here that this suffix to and the stem to of the suffixes turn, tvā tavē and tōh, in gantum, galvā, sartavē and gantōh of Vēdic Sanskrit are similar. In addition to the form ceytū, the forms pôy and uṇańki are used. Here in is not added to the root, but y or i is added. If i happened to be the earlier suffix, it may be said that it was changed to y² in the case of certain verbs. These forms ceytū, uṇaṅki and pôy have lived to the present day, unlike the forms ceyyū and ceypū.

CEYYÜ: Cēṇāvaraiyar and Nacciṇārkkiṇiyar mention that this denotes an action done previous to that denoted by the verb finite or infinite which it qualifies.¹ (e.g.) ilas paṭaiyā . . . ezzi

(Tol. Col. 228.)

Ceytû ceyyû-c ceypû çeytena-c Ceyyiyar ceyyiya ceyin-ceya-c ceyarkena A-v-vakai y-oppatum vînai-y-eñcu kilavi.

^{2.} Cf. Ikara yakara m-iyuti viravum. (Tol. E. 58.)

Ükāram unnāvantān, tipnā-vantān enappin-varum tolizku itai-y-ingi mun-varum

(Pattu. 227. 376). But there are examples where it denotes an action more or less simultaneous with that denoted by the verb which it qualifies. Thus in the sentence 'tōļ ācci valan vaļai-yūn-p-pakal makiļ tūṅkum' (Pattu. 136. 145.) which means 'dancing at day time with the left shoulder bent towards the right', the word vaṭaiyūn qualifies the present participle tūṅkum and the action of bending denoted by it remains so long as the action of dancing denoted by tūṅkum remains. Hence it seems that Teyvaccilaiyār has mentioned that this form ceyyū may denote an action simultaneous with that of the word which it qualifies.¹ This form ceyyū sometimes changes to ceyyū.²

The author of the Pirayōkavivēkam says that this corresponds to the form kāram in Sanskrit where the namulpratyaya is added to the root.³ There is no purpose served by taking it so. This has almost given place to the form cayyā even in the ancient period. (e.g.) kalavin eriyā civanturāy (P. N. 4, 10).

CEYPÜ: Cēṇāvaraiyar thinks that this denotes an action simultaneous with that which is denoted by the word which it qualifies. Teyvaccilaiyār and Nacciṇārkkiṇiyar quote one and the same sentence 'pularā-p-paccilai-y-iṭāi-y-uṭupu toṭutṭa' where the action denoted by uṭupū is previous to that denoted by toṭutṭa and hence think that the form ceypū may also denote an action previous to that denoted by the verb which it qualifies. This agrees with the use of the word 'teripū' in teripū-vēṛu kilattal (Tol. Col. 49) by Tolkāppiyaṇār himself. This like ceyyū, is practically extinct.

The form CEYYATÜ evidently denotes the absence of an action that should have been done before that denoted by the verb which it qualifies. (e.g.) nirayan holpavarotu ourātu....

tolin-mel iranto-kolam parri vorum.

(Tol, Col. 228, Cēṇā.)

- 1. Ceyya-enpatù iranta-kalamum nikol-kalamum kattum.
 (Tol. Col. 228, Tey.)
- 2. Ceyyā v-engum viņai-y-encu kiļaviyum. (Tol. E. 223.)
- Сеууй-с сеууй-с сеури-v-е n-eccan Катий-ё namul-ë yap-p-ena l-ākum. (P. V. 38, Comm.)

ompumati (P. N. 5, 6 & 7). The form ceyyomat is used in the same sense by Tolkappiyanar in the satra

Ațai-cinai, mutal-ena unițai-münru mayankămai Națai-per riyalum vanua-c cinai-c-col. (Tol. Col. 26.)

In addition to them the form ceyyāmal is found in Sangam works. (e.g.) tīrāmar kāppatār tīraņuntēt (Ka. T. Vol. 1, 287. 13.): ceyyāmar ceyta-v-ntavt (K. 101). The latter form is more frequently used in modern days than the former.

What could have been its origin? I venture to suggest the following explanation;—

From the frequent use of compound forms like celvēm allēm (P. N. 31. 11.), telutaṇam allamō (P. N. 60. 6.) in old Tamil literature, it may not be unreasonable to suppose that a compound formation of the type of kāṇām allām was also current beside the forms kāṇēm allēm, and kāṇaṇam allām. Now it is easy to see how an extended form like kāṇāmal representing the negative indeclinable participle may have sprung up, by the line of separation being erroneously drawn between kāṇāmal and ām. In all probability, the form kāṇāmal which arose in this manner may have been used first in association with a verb of the first person plural and subsequently may have acquired an extended use in association with other persons and numbers also. Then the forms like cayyāmal may have sprung up. The form cayyāmēl is also found in use.

GERUNDS: CEYYIYAR AND CEYYIYA: These mean exactly 'for the purpose of doing'. Hence they qualify a word which denotes an action previous to that denoted by itself. These two are practically extinct now. It is worth noting that the grunds coyyiyar and ceyyiya are similar in form to that of the finite verbs in the optative mood. cf. ni valiyar (P.N. 137,14); valiya ni (Ka. T. Vol. 2.883.21).

CEYARKÜ: This conveys the same sense as ceyytyar and ceyyiya. In form it appears to be the fourth case of the verbal

Añcono vonnan-en n-ar-uyir nayoka n-alamê (my dear life-giver, blue in colour as collyrium, not ruling.) (Kampar. Kuka. 14.)

noun ceyal. It is similar to the form sartaut in Vedic Sanskrit since both the forms are dative. Examples like varaghi (to come) (P. N. 64. 7), vaian-ceyaphi (to go round in clock-wise direction) (P. N. 6. 18) are very frequent in literary works. But in modern times the form ceyaphi is more frequently used than the form ceyaphi.

CEYA: This conveys the same meaning as ceygiyar, ceyyiya and ceyarkû, when it qualifies a finite verb, a participle, indeclinable past participle or another gerund. This is sometimes used as an absolute. In examples like malai peyya, kulom nigaintatû, (rain falling, the tank became full) the gerund peyya denotes an action previous to that denoted by the verb nigaintatû which follows it; and in examples like ñâyiyu pata, avan vantân, (the sun setting, he came) the gerund pata denotes an action simultaneous with that denoted by the verb vantân which follows it: It may also denote an action subsequent to that denoted by the verb which it qualifies (e.g.) makkal cukamây irukka tantai paṇañ certtân. (The father amassed wealth so that his children might live happily.) This form has lived to the present day. Sometimes, the form ceyya takes its place.

CEYIN: This means if you do. A similar infinitive form is not found in Sanskrit. This form ceyin is frequently used in the works of the Sangam period. (e.g.) paricil nalkuvaiyāyin (if you give presents) (P. N. 116. 5). This may be taken as an ablative infinitive. It is similar in form to the ablative infinitive gantāk in Vēdic Sanskrit, though they differ in sense. The form is gradually giving place to the form ceytāt which is evidently a third case formed from the stem ceytāt. (e.g.) enniyiruntāt (if you have thought) (Kampar. A. 276. 88.)

In the ancient period the negative form corresponding to ceyin is ceyinallal. (e.g.) non kan perioallal (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 524. 8). In modern days the forms ceyyāviṭṭā and ceyyāviṭṭāl are used instead.

CEYTENA: This form is generally used as an absolute, though there are instances like viluttukai perukena vēntutum (Pari. 93. 117) where it is used like other gerunds. It generally denotes the cause of the action denoted by the verb which follows it.

(e.g.) futuppeyal folintena kövalar... vēru fulam parafpi (Since there were new showers, shepherds having gone to new lands) (Pattu. 323, 2 to 4) and hence it should invariably denote an action previous to that denoted by the verb which follows it. This form has almost died out.

In addition to the above forms, Tolkappiyanar has mentioned the forms ceytapin, ceytamun, ceytakkal, ceyvali, ceyvitam, etc., which end in the words pin, mun, etc. which denote time.

Besides, the form ceyiuum is used in the literature of the ancient period in the sense 'though one does'. (e.g.) nt ventium (though you want) (Ka. T. Vol. 2,576,20). This is evidently formed from cayin by the addition of the particle nm. This is to a certain extent parallel to the form krtvapi (krtva+api) in Sanskrit.

The author of the Viracoliyam mentions that the particles paruțțu, ka, pop, tarku, van and a are added after roots to give the sense of tumanta (i.e.) gerunds. The examples for the same are found in the commentary under the same stanza:— They are unutarporuțțu vantăți (he came to eat), karka tărpariyattăp (he intended to read), patropăn vantăn (he came to read,) pătarku nipaintăn (he thought to go), arwan karuttunțu (he desired to know), unua vallan (he is able to eat). Here it is evident that the forms ununtar poruțiu and pătarku are respectively the fourth case of the verbal nouns unutal and pătal. The forms karka and unua come under the same category as ceya mentioned by Tolkappiyanăr. In the case of pațippăn and arivăn în the sentences pațippăn vantăn and arivăn karuttunțu, they may have been originally finite verbs and were later on taken as gerunds.

Papņum-eļir-tātū viņ-piņpil-ākum pakarīl-muņpā Tupņiya tātu-t toļīr-poruļļāka v-eņņun-toļaraci Uvņiya-pātagrū teyvo-p-pulava r-uraittaņarē.

(V. Tāt, 8,)

^{1.} Mannum tumantam poruțiù-k-ka-p-păŋ-tarkû văŋ-av-earû

How this happened may thus be explained. Tolkāppiyaṇār recognises the use of a number of finite verbs without conjunctive particles, in syntactic agreement with the same subject. It does not require much effort to see that collocations of this kind—putliyāṇai vantatu kāṇṇāṇ yāṇ taṅkiṇāṇ (I stayed to see the new elephant) (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 592, 7), colliṇāṇ . . . tērruvāṇ (Kampar. A. 213, 16), paṇam cērpṭāṇ ṭaṭiṣṭāṇ varuvāṇ (he came to read so that he might earn money) (Colloq.)—may have led to forms like kāṇṭāṇ, cērṭṭāṇ, ṭaṭiṣṭāṇ, being taken as gerunds in the sense of cērkāa and paṭikka.

The author of the Neminatam has omitted the forms copying and copy mentioned by Tolkappiyanar, since such forms may have gone out of use in his time, incorporated the forms ending in a and pan mentioned by the author of the Viracoliyam and has added another form ending in pakkin.

Avaitām
 Tettan kiļavi y-atukkuno varigum
 Ettigat tāņum peyar-muti piņavē. (Tol. Col. 429.)

 Ā-v-um-ittu-n-tu-v-v-u- m-u-v-v-inofiyyu m-arum-pulavar Ēvuń-karuttā v-iru-tofit k-antitis munpu-nintā Mēvum-parut-tātu viņ-piņ-varu-mikka tan-peyarē Pāvum-tuvāntam-a tām-cuturaippar paņi-maļiyē.
 (V, Tāt. 9.)

Ceytú ceya-c-c-ceyyā-c ceyyiya ceytena-c
 Ceypú ceyin-ceyar kenpanavum-moy-kulalāy
 Fin-mun-pān pākkum piravum viņai-y-ecca-c
 Cap-mun vakuttār tunivu, (N. N. Col. 43.)

The author of the Nangui has mentioned all the forms noted by Tolkappiyanar except coyarku and adopted the forms ending in a, van and pan from the author of the Viracoliyam and the forms ending in pakku from the author of the Neminatam.

Cēṇāvaraiyar in his commentary under Tol. Col. 229 me tiens the form ending in pākkā and also other forms ending in āl as ceytāt and mal as ceyyāmal (negative), etc. (e.g.) oṇṛu kuṇaipaṭāmal (Cilap. 57. 9.)

Naccipārkkiņiyar in his commentary under the same sūtra adds a form ending in vākkis.

The author of the Hakkaṇaviļakkam repeats what has been said by the author of the Naṇṇūl.²

WHAT IS THE PROBABLE ORIGIN OF THE FORMS. ENDING IN PAKKÜ AND VAKKÜ? There are three instances where the suffix bakki is used in the Kural. They are found in the Kural, 136, 164 and 1312. In the first two, the word patupākkii appears and in the last, engakků. From the context they mean only patutal and engutal. Påkků, here, may be understood as a suffix added to a root to form a verbal noun denoting the action alone. Thus a form like patupākķu may be analysed into the root patu, the formative suffix pu and akki the noun form of the root ākir. But the forms ending in pākkir and vākkir mentioned by the authors of the Něminātam and the Nangūl and Naccigārkkiniyar are gerunds. Naccinārkkiņiyar quotes a sentence i puņartaru-cerau-laru-pākku-c-cenrān' as an example of the gerund ending in pākkii and quotes a colloquial expression 'keļvākkii vantāy' as an example of the gerund ending in vākkā. They are very rarely used in literature. What could have been their origin?

Unpākkā and keļvākkā may have arisen through haplology as crippled forms of mpākkukkā and keļvākkukkā, the dative singular of unpākkā and keļvākkā.

Ceytü ceypü ceyyö-c ceyyü-c
 Ceytena-c ceya-c ceyin ceyyiya ceyyiyar
 Văn-pan păkkena vinai-y-eccem pira
 Ainton r-arum mukkâlam-um murai-tarum. (Na. 343.)

^{2. (}I. V. 246.) See f.n. 2 supra.

The author of the Pirayökavivěkam has mentioned only the forms ceyyű, ceyyű, ceyyű, ceytű, ceytű, ceytű and ceya and coins the following sűtras to make these forms correspond to those in Sanskrit:—'ceyyű-c-ceyyű-c-ceyyű v-ey-eccań-kamuñê, namulê yap-penal űkum' 'cyavey eccam itiyenal űkum' 'ceyin ceytűl-eya-c-ceppum irantinai iticét t-enpar arinticinőrê'. These mean that the forms ceyyű, ceyyű and ceypű respectively correspond to the forms in Sanskrit ending in khamuñ (e.g. căurań hōram in căurańkāram űkröśati), namul (e.g. šmāram šmāram) and yap (e.g. atagamya); the form ceyteya corresponds to krivű iti; the forms ceyin and ceytűl correspond to karöti cēt. He also mentions that the form ceytű corresponds to krivű and ceya to kartum. Since no useful purpose is served by these sűtras of correspondence, I think they are unnecessary in a treatise on Tamil grammar.

In collequial speech only the form ceytii remains for the indeclinable past participle, the forms ceya and ceytarkii for the gerund, ceyin and ceytal to denote condition and ceytalton and ceyinum to denote contrast in the affirmative; and in the negative voice ceyyamal (e. g. kuraipatamal (Cilap. 57. 9) for the indeclinable past participle, ceyyamal irruppatarkii for the gerund and ceyyamal irruntal and ceyyamal irruntalism to denote condition and contrast respectively. The presence of many forms for the gerund in the affirmative in the accient Tamil and only a few in the modern period reminds one of the similar process of change in the history of Sanskrit infinitives.

3.23. ITAI-C-COL:

 3,231. DEFINITION: Tolkāppiyaŋār mentions in the sūtras

Iţar-y-ena-p paţuva peyaroţum viņai-y-oţum
Naţai-per r-iyalum tamakkiyal p-ilavē. (Tol. Col. 249.)
Avaitām
Munnum piynu moţi-y-aţuttu varutalum
Tam-m-īru tiritalum piritava nilaiyalum
Aynavai y-eliā m-uriya v-enpa. (ibid. 251.)
Avaitām
Puņariya nilai-y-iţai-p porunilai-k-kutanavum
Viņai-ceyan maruhkir kālamoţu varunavum
Vērrunai-p poruţ-vayi n-urupā kunavum
Acai-nilai-k kiļavi y-āki varunavum
Icai-nirai-k kiļavi y-āki varunavum
Tattah kurippir poruţ-cey kunavum
Oppil valiyār poruţ-cey kunavum-enrū

that *iţai-c-col* has no separate existence of its own, it is used along with nouns and verbs either as a part of them or before or after them and consists of the flexional increments, personal terminations of verbs, case-suffixes, particles added for the sake of cuphony or for making up the quantity of verse, particles of conjunction and interjection, and those denoting comparison, etc. From this it is clear that *iţai-c-col* in Tamil corresponds to *pratyayas* and *nipātas* in Sanskrit. The author of the Nēminātam repeats the idea contained in Tol. Col. 250 only.¹ The author

A-p-pan pinavē mevalun kālai. (ibid. 250.)

Căriyai-y-ă y-onta l-urupăta țak-kuțipțin
Erum porul ăta ninticai-y-ăy-p-pertal
Vinai-c-carkir răta l-icai-nizaitiu mēval
Anaitte y-ițai-c-ca l-alavu. (N. N. Col. 50.)

of the Nangūl summarises in one sūtral all that is said by Tolkāppiyaṇār, in the three sūtras mentioned above. The author of the Ilakkaṇavijakkam² and the Tonnūlvijakkam³ more or less repeat what is said by Nangūlār. All the commentators of the Tolkāppiyam and the later grammarians think that Tol. Col. 249 deals with the definition of itai-c-col.

But it seems to me that Tolkāppiyaṇār did not intend either Tol. Col. 249 or all the three sūtras Tol. Col. 249, 251 and 250 for the purpose of defining iṭai-c-col; for, the most important feature of iṭai-c-col is that it is a pratyaya or formative element or a nipāta. This is suggested by the name iṭai-c-col which means 'the side word.' That this is his idea is well seen from the sūtra

Itai-c-col l-ellām vērrumai-c collē. (Tol. Col. 455.) where he says that every itai-c-col is vērrumai-c-col. Here vērrumai-c-col evidently means differentiating element, i. e., an element which differentiates the relation between the governing base or word to which it is appended and the following verb. For instance the case-suffix ai in 'irāmaṇai' specifically defines the character of iramaṇ's relation to the following verb as its object, since the stem irāmaṇ, by itself, admits of several kinds of relation such as the subject, instrument, recipient, etc. Similarly ā in vantāṇā makes the assertive verb vantāṇ an interrogative verb and so on.

Having suggested that itai-c-col is a formative element or a nibāta, Tolkāppiyaṇār says in Tol. Col. 249 and 251 that it does

T. V. 130.

Vērrumoi viņai cāriyai oppu urupukaļ
 Tattam paruļa icai-nirai acai-nilai
 Kurippe n-en-pakutiyin taņittiya l-inri-p
 Peyarinum viņaiyinum pin-mun āriţattu
 Oprum palavum van tonguva t-iţai-c-col. (Na. 420.)

Vērgumai viņai-ca riyai-y-op purupukaļ
 Tattam poruļa v-icai-nigai y-acai-nilai
 I-t-tiga m-ēlig gapittiya l-ingi-p
 Peyaripum viņaiyiņum piņ-muņ n-ōr-itattu
 Ongum palavum-van tonguva t-itaiccol. (I. V. 251.)

not possess a separate existence, but is used as a part of nouns or verbs or before or after either of them. He then enumerates them in detail in Tol. Col. 250.

3-232. IS ITAI-C-COL VACAKA OR DYÖTAKA? Cēṇā-varaiyar and Teyvaccilaiyār mention in their commentary on Tol. Col. 249 that the word 'tamakkiyalpila' suggests that itai-c-col is not a vācaka but only dyōtaka, i.e. it does not have a meaning of its own, but only suggests that the noun or verb which it accompanies has a particular meaning. They have said so, I think, in imitation of a class of Sanskrit grammarians who hold that upasargas or prepositions and the case-suffixes in Sanskrit are dyōtaka and not vācaka. For instance in upakarōti the element upa does not have any meaning of its own, but suggests that the root kr in upakarōti means to help, though it can have other meanings elsewhere. Similarly, the case-suffixes suggest that the base is an object to a verb, recipient, etc.

But I think that this is not quite consistent with the definition given by Tolkāppiyaṇār that col is that which has a meaning. I have already said in 3.1 supra that Tolkāppiyaṇār seems to follow the opinion of the Sanskrit logicians. According to the latter even the pratyayas are vēcakā. Besides, even those Sanskrit grammarians who think that upasargas and case-suffixes are dyōtaka take the verbal terminations to be vēcaka and not dyōtaka.

If that he so, one may ask what the importance of the word * tamakkiyalpila' in the sutra Tol. Col. 249 is. It evidently suggests that itai-c-col does not have a separate existence of its own outside nouns or verbs or the sentence made up of nouns or verbs.

3.233. PARALLELS: The sentence 'iţai-y-eṇappaṭuva peyaroṭum viṇaiyeṭum naṭaipeṛṛiyalum' in Tol. Col. 249 seems to find a parallel in 'upasargā viṃśatirarthavācakāḥ sahēta-rābhyām (R. V. P. 12.6). Here one may point out that the latter deals only with upasarga, while the former deals with

^{1.} Ella-c collum parul-kuri-l tana-v-ē. (Tol. Col. 155.)

pratyayas and all nipātas. But the expression 'sahētarābhyām' is so beautifully translated by Tolkāppiyaṇār into 'peyaroṭum viṇatyoṭum' that it may apply to all pratyayas and nipātas.

Besides it seems to me that Tolkāppiyaṇār in giving a list of iṭai-c-cal with their meanings in iṭai-y-iyal may have had for his model the first chapter of Yāska's Nirukta where Yāska deals with nipātas. The following parallels may be noted:—

- cirappotu . . . ökárammē (which means the particle ö
 is used to denote superiority.) Tol. Col. 256:
 - cit . . . pūjāyām (Y. N. 33.12.) (pūjā=cirappu.)
- pirinilai . . . ökārammē (which means the particle ö is used in pirinilai.) Tol. Col. 256:
 - aha iti ca ha ili ca vinigrahārthīyāu (Y. N. 37.2.) (vinigraha—pirinilai.)
- antil ānku-v-acainilai-k-kilavi (which means that the the words antil, ānka are used simply to make up the quantity of the verse.) Tol. Col. 267:
 - athāpi padapūraņā idamu ladu (Y. N. 37.4) (padapūraņa = acainilai-k-kiļavi.)
- 3.234. Prepositions in Tamil are very rare. That which approximates to it in early literature is ken in kennür. Kennür is mentioned by the author of the Pirayökavivěkam as a compound having the nipāta ken as the first member. It may be said to be similar in form to upagrāmam in Sanskrit. In the later periods the nouns like kai in iraiyiliyāka-k-kai-k-kentu (S. I. I. iii, i, 44.0), puram in puran-ketuttān are considered as prepositions. (c. f. P. V. 45, comm.)

 ^{&#}x27;Konnar' ena arviyaya-pārve-patam-āy vanta avviyayīpāvam-ākiya muņ-moli-y-iţai-c-col varum. (P.V. 23 comm.)

3.24. URI-C-COL.

3,241. DEFINITION: Tolkāppiyaŋār mentions in the sūtra

Uri-c-cor kiļavi virikkun kālai
Icai-y-iņun kurippiņum paņpiņum tönri-p
Pēyariņum viņaiyiņu mey-taļu māri
Oru-cor pala-peruļ k-urimai tönriņum
Pala-cel I-aruperuļ k-urimai tönriņum
Payilāta varrai-p payinravai cāriti-t
Tatta marapir cenru-nilai marunkiņ
E-c-cel I-āyiņum paruļ vēru-kiļattal. (Tol. Col. 297.)

that uri-c-col in its detailed significance denotes icai, kurippi and panpis. Its form undergoes modification in nouns and verbs. It may have many meanings or it may have the same meaning as others of its kind and it is to be explained in literature by means of words ordinarily current in the world.

All the commentators of the Tolkäppiyam mistake that this sutra defines uri-c-col. Cenāvaraiyar feeling that the statement that it has many meanings, etc.' is out of place in the sutra dealing with definition, says that though the author states that it is used in nouns and verbs with its form modified, etc., it should be defined as that which denotes icai, kurippii and panpil. Teyvaccilaiyār says that, since Tolkāppiyanār has mentioned uri-c-col as kurai-c-cor-kiļavi in Eļuttatikāram, it is identical with dhātu in Sanskrit.²

Mey-taţu-māţalum oru-cor pala-poruţ-kuri-mai-y-um, pala-col oru-poruţ-kurimaiyum uri-c-corku unmaiyan ötinarenum, uri-c-corku ilakkanam-āvatu icai kurippu-p panpennum poruţkuriyavāy varutalēyām. (Tol. Col. 297, Cênă.)

^{2.} Eluttatikārattuļ itaņai kurai-c-cor-kiļavi eņrā ūtinamaiyāl, vaļanūl-ūciriyar tātu eņrā kuri-y-iļļa corkalē ivai-y-eņrā koļļappajum. (Tol. col. 292, Teyva.)

The author of the Neminatam summarises Tol. Col. 297 in N. N. Col. 56. The author of the Nanguil defines that mri-c-col is that which is exclusively used in poetry, which cannot be separated from nouns and verbs and which denotes one kunam or quality or many qualities. The author of the Hakkanavilakkam reproducts the idea contained in Tol. Col. 297 with the modification that it is used either as vigai-p-pôli (verb in imutation) and payar-p-pôli (noun in imitation) or as the base of nouns or verbs and mentions in his commentary on the same that harupphi, cirapphi are payar-p-pôli and upu, tawa are vigai-p-pôli in the same way as Cênāvaraiyar has done under Tol. Col. 297. Besides, he states that there are some Tamil grammarians who hold that uri-c-col is mostly found in poetry.

It seems to me that Tol. Col. 297 does not deal with the definition of uri-c-col. If it deals with it, all the lines except the first two are out of place, as is suggested by Cēṇāvaraiyar. Its definition is suggested by the name uri-c-col. Uri-c-col does not mean the word belonging to only poetry as Naṇṇūlār thinks, nor the word denoting quality belonging to objects as Cēṇāvaraiyar and others think. It means the word denoting the independent part of a noun or verb; for the word urimai means right and hence independence. Its nature in form is clearly expressed in the sūtra—

Eluttn-p-pirin ticaitta l-ivaniyal p-iyrē. (Tol. Col. 395.) which may be translated thus:—'It is not in its nature capable of being further analysed'. This and the word kurai-c-cor-kilavi mentioned in the last but one sūtra of Eluttatikūram clearly suggest that uri-c-col is the root of nouns or verbs. It cannot be taken to be identical with Sanskrit dhātu as mentioned by Teyvaccilaiyār since dhātu is, according to the Sanskrit Grammarians, a verbal root and since Tolkāppiyapār has not suggested anywhere in his work that all nouns are derived from verbal roots. Teyvaccilaiyār seems to have said so thinking that Tol-

Pal-vakai-p panpum pahar-peya r-āki
 Oru-kuņam pala-kuņan taļuvi-p peyar-viņai
 Oruva ceyyuṭkū uriyaṇa uri-c-col.

kåppiyanår follows the theory of Såkatåyana and Nåiruktas that all nouns are derived from verbal 100ts. But it seems to me that he follows the theory of Gårgya and another section of Sanskrit grammarians who hold that it is not necessary that all nouns should have been derived from verbal roots. The chief reason for the latter view is that neither Tolkåppiyanår nor the later grammarians have attempted to derive all nouns from verbal roots. Hence uri-c-col may be taken as the nominal or verbal root

3.242. NATURE OF URI-C-COL: If so, what is the purpose served by Tol. Col. 297? I may say that it explains it. The part 'icalyinum kurippinum panpinum tōnri' means 'used to denote ical (sound) kurippin (feeling) and panpin (jāti—genus guna—quality or kriyā'—action'). The part 'orucol palaparut kurimai tōnrinum' means 'though the same root can have different meanings'. The part 'palacol oruporut kurimai tōnrinum' means 'though different roots are used in the same sense'. The part 'payilātavarrai payinravai cārtti . . kiļattal' means 'one should explain the meaning of the root which is not current by one which is current'.

3.243. URI-Y-IYAL IN TOLKĀPPIYAM AND YĀSKA'S NIRUKTA: A close examination of the first sutra in this section (uri-y-vya!) and those that follow, and the second, third and fourth chapters of Yāska's Nirukta shows that Tolkāppiyaṇār may have had Nirukta for his model. The portion 'orucol palaporuţ kurimai tōngimum' has a patallel in 'ēkārtham anēkašabdam ityētaduktam (Y. N. 265.1).' The portion 'palacol oruporuţ kurimai tōngimum' has a parallel in 'atha yānyanēkārthāni ēka-sabdāni tānyatō anukramiṣyāmaḥ (Y. N. 266.2)'. The expression 'payilātavarṛat' has a parallel in 'anavagatasaṃskārān ca nigamān (Y. N. 266.3). The expression 'velippaṭu collē' has a parallel in 'samvijādtāni tāni' in the sentence 'tadyatra

Tetra namoni ākhyātajānīti Sākajāyanā neirukta-samayaš ca. (Y.N. 56, 2.)

Na sarvāni ity ēva gārgyō vālyākaruņānēň cāikē.

svarasamskārān samarthān prādešikena guņena anvitūn syātām samvijādāni tāni' (Y. N. 56.4).

The list of uri-c-col given by Tolkappiyanar may be divided into that which deals with verbal roots and that which deals with nominal roots. For instance, the words vartal, pokal, firttal etc., in Tol. Col. 317 & 318 denotes only the verbal roots var, po, the exactly in the same way as ovayati, bhavati, veti, etc., given in Y.N. page 195, relate, helate, etc., in page 197 of the same, etc. The words vilumam, carmai, karuvi mentioned in Tol. Col. 353 and 354 are similar to mahat, budhnah, etc. given in Y.N. page 213. But at the same time, it should be borne in mind that Tolkappiyanar does not seem to have incorporated in Tamil grammar the theory of the Nairuktas that all nouns are derived from verbal roots.

It may be interesting to note that the Tamil word uru found in the sutra 'uru tava; nani . . mikuti ceyyum porula' (Tol. Col. 299) and the Sanskrit word uru in 'urn tuvi puru . . . iti dvādaša balinnāmāni (Y.N. 212.1) both head the list of words having the sense 'much'. The Tamil grammarians have not been able to satisfactorily explain the derivation of the Tamil 'uru' and the Tamil 'lava' in the sense of 'much'. But a consideration of the Nirukta parallel indicated above (uru tuvi , ,) might help any one in equating the Tamil urn and tava in the sense of 'much' with Sanskrit wrn and twoi in the same sense, and in appreciating the correspondence between the two sets of words both on the phonological and semantic sides. The way in which Tolkäppiyagår frames a list of words whose derivation cannot be ascertained—such as nani, kaţi—is very similar to the manner in which Yaska frames a list of asamvijāāta words like jahā, nidhā, etc. in pp. 267 and 269 of the Nirukta.

Besides, Tolkappiyanar first gives the list of roots which have the same meaning and then only roots which have different meanings. In Nirukta too, list of words having the same meaning is given in the second and third chapters and the list of those having different meanings is given in the fourth and fifth chapters.

On considering the above points, it may be clear that Tol. Col. 294 does not deal with the definition of Uri-c-col. The statement of Nangular that it is used only in poetry was made on account of the mistaken notion that only the words like urn, tava, nani, etc. whose derivation is believed to be obscure are uri-c-col. He seems to have failed to note the suitra 'velippalu colle kifatlal vēnļā, velippaļa vārā uricconmēņa' (Tol. Col. 298) which means that the uri-c-col which are in use are not mentioned here and only those which are not in use, are mentioned.

I really wonder how Cenavaraiyar and the author of the Hakkanavilakkam countenance the opinion of Nannulär that uri-c-col is found only in poetry as an alternative theory. The reason for this, it seems to me, is that they may have mistaken vilumam, cirmai, etc. mentioned in Tol. Col. 353 for noun forms, since they say that karuppu, civappu, etc. are peyar-p-poli while such forms evidently represent nominal roots as explained above.

From the above arguments one can very well see that it would not be correct to say that all words are uri-c-col, as the author of the Pirayökavivèkam has said in one place (P. V. 18, comm. p. 31.) or to include it in itai-c-col as the same grammarian has done in another place (P. V. 42, comm.); nor would it be correct to define uri-c-col as 'one of a few indeclinables which always have the force of adjective or adverb¹.

^{1.} T. L. p. 441.

4. WORD-FORMATION AND COMPOUNDS,

4-1. WORD-FORMATION: It seems to me that according to Tolkäppiyanär that words, generally nouns and verbs, are formed by suffixing one or more itai-c-col to uri-c-col, as kariyan, kariyat, etc. or by suffixing itai-c-col to nouns or verbs as valaiyan, unnana, etc.

The author of the Viracoliyam, in imitation of Panini's grammar, names the suffixes that are added to words as taddhita. and gives their list in V. Tat. 1, 4 and 5. They are an, iyan, inan, eyan, etc.; mai, am, pu, tu, vu, kam, etc.; and acci, atti, ani, alti, al, al, i, etc. The examples given by the commentator for the same are valatyan, vētiyan, kulīnau, vainatēvan, etc.; valimat, nilam, melippa, valita, melivu, kuzukkam, etc.; paraicci, vellätti, pärppani, vannätti, etc. Here an unnecessary mixing-up of Sanskrit taddhita pratyayas and Tamil pratyayas has been done; for instance, ina in kulina and eya in vainateya are Sanskrit pratyayas; the pratyayas given in V. Tat. 4 are strictly speaking krt pratyayas; but the author of the Viracolivam seems to take it that valimai, kurukkam, etc., are formed from the nouns vali, kuru, etc., which, in his opinion, are formed from the roots val, kur, etc. But we do not find such verbal forms as val and kur. As regards the third list the same confusion is made. The Sanskrit word brühmanastrī, if Tamilised, becomes pārppanatti and parphanacci. Hence acci and atti are not, strictly speaking, suffixes. The word variatti is evidently formed from vannan + attu (cāriyai) + i, where the n of vannan is dropped. Hence all the suffixes noted in V. Tat. 5 could be brought under i, al and al. Similarly he makes mention of ket pratyayas in V. Tat. 3 and 4.

He forms the nominative case of nouns by adding on and then dropping it, in direct imitation of Pāṇini's grammar.

Nannūlār takes the forms naļa, vā, ctc. as the roots like the author of the Viracolliyam; but does not agree that cemmai, cirumai, etc. are derived from verbs, but says that they are pakāppatam or indivisible words.

According to him, the case-forms of nouns are formed by adding case-suffixes to nouns or participial nouns, e.g. kaṇṇaṇai, pōṇēṇai; cāriyai may be inserted before the case-suffix; the verbal forms are formed by adding the tense sign followed by the personal terminations to the roots in general.

All the later grammarians follow Nannülär² except the author of the Pirayökavivěkam, who follows the author of the Viracöliyam. The parallelism between V. Tat. 2 and 3 and P. V. 51 and 32 is striking. He divides tattitan into three as cāmāniyatattitan, avviyatattitan, and pāvatattitan, and enumerates them in P. V. 30 to 34. The difference between the author of the Vīracöliyam and that of the Pirayökavivěkam is that the latter does not mix the Tamil suffixes with Sanskrit suffixes though he imports the Sanskritic technical terms.

4.2. COMPOUNDS: 4.21. MEANING OF THE WORD 'TOKAI': The word that is chosen by Tolkāppiyaṇār to denote compounds is tokai. The word tokai is derived from the root 'tokai' which means to elide and also to join together. Cēṇā-

Naja-vā maţi-ct viţu-kū vē-vai
No-p-pā vau-v-uri ñun-parun tirun-tin
Tēy-pār celvau vāl-kē ţ-a: kenrū
Inpavai mutala v-ellā vipaiyun
Terinilai viņaiyin mutanilai y-ākum, (I. V. 43')
Nata, vā, un, tin ittatakkattana viņai-p-pakā-p-patam.

 Cāmā niyam-av viyam-pāva māņreņa-t tattitaņ-vērā (P. V. 30.)

(ibid. 40, comm.)

Manniya-cīr-vaţa nālir-cara-paca v-enţu-vantū
Tunniya-tātu-k kalin-pēli-pēla-t toku-tamilkkum
Panniya-tātu-k kalai-p-paṭaittu-k-kalka munnilaiyin
Unniya-v-ēva t-orumai-c-car-pānţula kiţkakkavē.
(V. Tāt, 1,)

varaiyar1 mentions that there are two schools of interpretation of the word tokai; one adopts the first meaning of the root toku and thinks that tokai is that where the case-suffixes, the particle um, the particles of comparison, the ending of panpu-p-payar and the ending of verbs are dropped and the other adopts the second meaning and thinks that tokai is that in which two or more words are joined together. He belongs to the latter school and condemns the former school for the following two reasons:--(1) According to their interpretation even the expressions ceyldn perul and irunten matattic would become tokai since the casesuffixes at and kan have been respectively dropped after the words porul and matativ. (2) Even those who hold the former theory cannot but accept the unitary nature of a compound. These two reasons cannot stand if tokai is taken to be that in which two or more words are joined together by dropping casesuffixes, etc. Besides, Tolkåppiyagår himself describes the unitary nature of compounds in the sutra

Ellā-t takai-y-n m-orn-con naţaiya. (Tol. Col. 420.) and dropping of case-suffixes, etc., in the sūtra

Panpū-toka varūnā kiļavi y-āņum Ummai tokka pēyar-vayi p-āņum Vērrumai tokka pēyar-vayi p-āņum Izru-niņ rayalu m-aņmeļi-t tēkai-y-ē. (Tol. Col. 418.)

where he deals with anmolittokai or bahavrihi compound. Hence the choice of the word 'tokai' shows the genius of Tol-kāppiyaṇār. It may be very interesting to note here that the Sanskrit name 'samāsa' also, while it explicitly refers to composition, also implicitly conveys the idea of curtailment as may be seen from the contrast between the Sanskrit words vyāsa and samāsa. The interpretation of the word tokai by Cēṇāvaraiyar and Teyvaccilaiyār is possibly based upon the obvious meaning

Vērrumai-y-urapum uvama-v-urupum um-m-aiyum viņaie-col-l-īrum paņpu-c-col-l-īrun tokutaliz rokai-y-āylua v-enpārum, a-v-v-a-p-parummēl irantum polavum-ākiya corkaļ piļovu-patātu orgumai-p-pata-t tam-m-nļ-ivaitaliz rokai-y-āyina v-enpārum-anā irutirattār āciriyar. (Tol. Col. 412, Cēnā.)

of the word sanden (composition). Though Teyvaccilaiyar gives this interpretation of *lokai* under Tol. Col. 412, he takes into consideration the other meaning also in the word *lokku* in panputaka... (Tol. Col. 418),

The author of the Viracoliyam, though he takes *tekai* to correspond to the term *samūsa*, (composition) clearly mentions the elision of case-suffixes, etc. in the former member of the compound (V. T. 1). The author of the Pirayōkavivēkam, on the other hand, says that he agrees with Cēṇāvaraiyar and repeats the reasons assigned by him (P. V. 19, comm. p. 34).

4.22. ENUMERATION OF COMPOUNDS AND THEIR NATURE.—Tolkāppiyanār classifies compounds under heads1:---Vērrumai-t-tokai, uvasnai-t-tokai, viņai-t-tokai, paņ pu-ttekai, mmai-t-tokai and anmoli-t-tokai. Vērgumaittekai? is that in which the members which form the compound stand in case-relation to each other as per-kutam (gold-pot). It corresponds to tatpurusa in Sanskrit. Uvamai-t-tokai3 is that in which one member is compared to another as pon-meni (gold-appearance). It corresponds to upamūna-pūrva pada-karma-dhāraya. Vinga-t-tokai+ is that in which the first member is a relative participle denoting time and the second member is the nounwhich it qualifies as kol-yanai (elephant that kills, killed or will It corresponds to a part of vifesana-parvapada-karmadharaya. Panpu-t-t-tokais is that in which the first member is generally a quality denoting colour, shape, extent, taste etc., and

1.	Vērrumai-t tokai-y-ē y-nvama-t tokai-y-ē	
	Vinai-y-in rokai-y-ë panpin rokai-y-ë	
	Ummai-t tokoi-y-ê y-aymoli-t tokai-y-enru	
	A-v-v-a z-enpa takai-mali nilai-y-ē. (Tol. Col. 412.	.).

^{2.} Vērrumai-t tokai-y-t vērrumai y-iyala, (ibid. 413.)

^{3,} Uvama-t lokai-y-č y-uvama v-iyala. (ibid. 414.)

^{4.} Vingi-y-in robuti kāla-t t-iyalum. (ibid. 415..)

^{5.} Vannattin vativi u-alavir cuvai-y-in-enri Anna piravu m-atan-kuna nutali Inna t-itu-v-ena varūu m-iyarkai Enna kiļaviyum panpin rokai-y-ē. (ibid. 416.)

the second a noun which has that quality as karuń-kutirai (black horse). This also corresponds to a part of viśłąna-pūrvapada-karmadhūraya. Ummai-t-tohai¹ is that in which each has two or more members, the members being connected with one another by 'and' and denoting persons, measures, numbers, weights etc., as puli-vir-kentai (tiger, bow and kentai fish) etc. It corresponds to dnaudna in Sanskrit. Anmoli-t-tokai² is the possessive compound, the members of which may stand to each other in any of the three relations—quality-noun relation, conjunctive relation, and case-relation. It corresponds to bahuvrihi in Sanskrit.

It may be noted here that the number of compounds in Tamil agree with that of primary compounds in Sanskrit and the names given to them in Tamil are more suggestive of their function than those in Sanskrit. These compounds are treated in syntax as though they are single words,³

The above classification of Tolkäppiyanär is lairly exhaustive; but such compounds as karu-niyam, cărai-p-pămpu, where both the members are either qualities or names which denote the genus and species of the same object, are not taken into account; but Cēnāvaraiyar explains in his commentary on the same sūtra that they too are pappū-l-tokai, on the strength of the expression enga-kilaviyam, which means 'similar words', in the sūtra.

All the later grammarians, except the authors of the Viracollivam and the Pirayokavivekam, i. e., the authors of the Neminatam, the Nannul, the Ilakkanavilakkam and the Ilakkanakkottú agree, as regards the classification of compounds, with

1,	Iru-peyar pala-peya r-alavin peyare	
	En-n-iyar peyarê niyai-p-peyar k kilavi	
	En-y-in peyarő t-a-v-v-aru kiloviyum	
	Kanniya nilaitte y-ummai-t tokai-y-e,	(ibid. 417.)

^{2.} Panpu toha-varūni kiļavi y-aņum Ummai tokka peyar-vayi ņ-āņum Vērrumai tokka peyar-vayi n-āņum Irru-niņ riyalu m-aņmali-t tokai-y-ē. (ibid. 418.)

^{3.} Ella-1 tokai-y-u m-oru-cop vataiya. (ibid. 420.)

Tolkäppiyagår. And Nannūlār tries to improve upon Tolkäppiyagår as regards the definition of panpu-t-tokail so that it may apply to compounds like karu-nigam, cărui-p-pămpă etc.

But the author of the Viracoliyam saw that a large number of Sanskrit compounds like aniti, anitiyam etc., were freely used in Tamil and they, along with some Tamil compounds like haru-nigam, panniru-toti, ten-kilakkii, could not be directly explained with the rules on compounds stated by Tolkäppiyanär. Hence he began to classify them exactly in the same way as is done in Sanskrit; tarpurutan (tatpuruna), pala-nel (bahavrihi), kanmatärayam (karmadhäraya), tuviku (dvigu), tuvantuvam (dvandva) and niviyapäva (avyayibhäva). Some may say that he might have left out arriyapäva since examples for it are very rare; it is true, but such words as yatākkiramam, the tadhhava of Skt. yathākrama, are sometimes found and they have to be explained.

The most important point to be noted in the Viracoliyam, as also in the Pirayokavivekam whose author closely follows that of the Viracoliyam with some difference here and there, is that most of the stanzas found in the chapter dealing with compounds (tokai-p-patalam), in both are exactly the translation of the kankas on samāsa assigned to the authorship of Vararuci in Sanskrit. They are as follows:—

(1) Şöğhü samüsüh sankşöpül ökatrimšadvidhüh punah | Tatröşfadhü tatpuruşah saptadhü karma-dhürayah || Saptadhü ca bahuvrihih dvigur-übhüşitö dvidhü | Dvandrašcatur-vulhö jüeyüavyayibhüvastridhü mutah || (Var. Kör.)

Tarpuruļan-pala ner-kayma tārayan tāhkiya-cīr Nar-zuviku-t-tokai nāvār-tuvantuva nalla-teyva-c

Panpai vilakkum moli-tok kanavum
 Oru-poruţku iru-peyar vantavum kuņa-t-tokai.
 (Na. 365).

^{2.} V. T. 2. 27

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Cer-payan-mëntarka l-avviyapëva m-itenju-tonmai Karpakam-ë-p-pakaru tër-tokai-y-ërun kanankulaiyë. (V. T. 2.)

Tarpurutan-ruvi ku-p-pala ner-karma tārayanōtā Urpala vāņetnā kat-pacun tē-moli y-ontotiyāy Cor-payi l-avvi yayīpāva m-ēnai-t tavantan-ena-k Karpavar kārnā camācan-ka [ē-tokai-k kattaļai-y-ē.

(P. V. 20,)

(2) Tatpurnşö' şţa-vidhö' bhût prathamādi-vibhakti-nañkṛtāir-hhēdāiḥ | Sa caikavadbhāvyanēkavadbhāvīti dvidhā dviguḥ || (Var. Kār.)

Eļuvāy-mutal-eļu vērrumaiyātu m-cļuntataiyit Vaļuvātanahhotet t-ān-tarpurutan vaļur-tuviku Taļuvārnta-veņmoļi munnāy-varnu tattita-p-poruņ-mēl Kuļuvār-orumaiy-op pu-p-paņmaiy-oppu-k huzi-y-irantē-(V. T. 3.)

Tar puru ța-t-lokai vêrrumai y-ețțanuț cărula nafiñu-c Coy-poru ț-anmai marai-y-inmai kățțuu tokai-t-luviku Murpala m-en-pir palau-laltitărita muțitlumeļūum Parpala v-ēkavar pāvi-y-a nekavar pāvi-y-enrē. (P. V. 21.)

(3) Saptabhirākhyābhir-vā vikhyātā yassavās bahuvrīhiḥ |
Dvābhyām padābhyām bahubhiḥ padāir vā
Sahkhyābhidhāyyantyapadam dvayam vā |
Yasyābhavatpūrvapadē sahašca
Digantarāla-vyatihāralakşmā; (Var. Kāt.)
Irumoļi-paymoļi piņmoļi y-enņōţ-irumoļi-y-en
Maruvum-vitiyā r-ilahkaņamarrai-c caka-mun-moļi
Paravun-tikantarā ļa-t-tokai-y-anna-p palanerrekai
Viriyum-ōr-ēļ-avai vērru-moļi-p poruņ-mel-t-iyalē.
(V. T. 4.)

Irumoli pan-meli pin-meli y-ennö ţ-irumoli-y-en Țaru-meli y-erroli tikkan tarâţañ caka-munirkum Oru-meli y-ēnai-viti kōra-lakkanattōţu varum Peru-meli y-āki-veku viriyan meli-p-pē r-aṭaintē.

(P. V. 24.)

 (4) Kavibhissapla-vidhassyādityēvam karma-dhārayaḥ kathitaḥ |

Višēsaņam pūrva-padē višēsyam tatkābhayatrāpi višēsaņam ca

Yasyōpamānam paratas-tadādēn sambhāvanā cāpyavadhāraņā ca || (Var. Kār.)

Mun-moli-p-panpu m-iru-moli-p-panpu m-olintamainta Pin-moli-y-oppolu mun-moli-y-oppum pinakkon-rila Mun-moli-nar-karut tum-mun-moli-narrunivum-ena Nan-moli-y-ūr-kanma tārayam-āranna nāṭṭiyarē. (V.T. 5.) Mun-moli-p panpiru panpu vicēṭiya mun-moli-tan Mun-moli-t tulliyam pin-moli-t tulliya moy-kulalāy Mun-moli-c campā vaṇai-y-ava tūrana murrum-ivai Nan-moli-p panpu-t tokai-k kanma tūrayanarramilkkē.

(P. V. 22.)

Here the author of the Viracoliyam omitted the class where the noun qualified by the adjective stands as the first member of the compound (višēṣya-pūrvapadaḥ) since, perhaps, it was difficult to him to find an example for it in Tamil language; and hence he stated that kanmatārayam is of 6 kinds, instead of 7 as found in Sanskrit. But the author of the Pirayōkavivēkam has included it also and gives Teyra-p-pulavan-riruvaļļavan as an example for it.

(5) Yutrāvyayam pūrvn-padam yathā vā
Subantamāhō dvilayam subantam |
Pūrvō' pi mukhyō bahušaḥ padārthaḥ
Tathāvyayībhāvam iārayanti||
Sa hi dvandvašcaturdhājsyāt budhāir-iti vinišcitaḥ |
Itarētarayōgākhyaḥ samāhārāhvayas tathā,|| (Var. Kār.)

'Muŋ-moļi-y-avviyaḥ-cēr tokai pēr-muŋ moļi-t-tokaiyē
Coŋ-moļi-y-avviya pāvamaruvum tuvantuvamum
Vaŋ-moļi-y-ām-ita rētaram-vāynta camā-kāram-ām
Naŋ-moļi-y-āŋ-urait tārkaļ-camāca naru-mutalē, (V. T. 6.)

He has not mentioned that class of anymyibhāva where the members are nouns, as madhyē'gāram since such words have not been taken into Tamil language.

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Mun-meli-p për-e-co l-ifai-c-co l-iranțu murați-nițkum Tay meli y-avvi yayî pëva m-ummai-c cakărattile In-meli-t toutan ¹ camăkărăt tățita retaramăm An-meli-t tărramun camuccayat tățu-man văcayamê. (P. V. 23

(P. V. 23.)

(P. V. 25.)

The statement 'annivayi pünamoppu-murai piralum' which means that the relative importance of the first or second member in anyayi bhāna and upamitasamāsa will change, is made on the strength of the words prāyaḥ and bahušaḥ in uttara-pada-janitārthaḥ prāyō mukhyaḥ and pūrvō'pi mukhyō bahušaḥ padārthaḥ respectively. The author of the Viracōliyam, having dealt with this classification of compounds in 5 stanzas, mentions also the classification made by Tolkāppiyaṇār as the opinion of a class of Tamilians.

The only point of difference between these two kinds of classification is only with respect to avyayibhāva and nañtatpuruşa, since other latpuruşas, dvandva and bahuvrīhi are identically the same as vērrumaittokai, ummaittokai and apmolittokai, though with different names, and karmadhāraya and dvigu may some-

cf. Bhattoji Dikṣit's vṛtti on 'carthē dvandvaḥ'--'samuccaya-onvācaya-itarētarayöga-samāhārāḥ cārthāḥ.

how or other be brought under uvamattokai, vigaittokai and panputtokai.

- 4.23. Here I want to deal further with the difference of opinion among the commentators of Tolkäppiyam and Nappūlār regarding viyai-t-tokai and pappu-t-tokai and whether the expression nilen kaṭantāṇ is a tokai or not.
- 4.231. As regards viņaittokai, Ilampūraņar, Teyvaccnaryār and Naccinarkkiniyar think, that when a present, past, or future, narticipie like kollum or konza is compounded with a noun like yāṇai, the participial suffix is dropped and they become kol-yāṇai. Hence the word kol-yayar means 'elephant that kills, that killed or that will kall'. But Cenavaraiyar is of opinion that kol-vüyai. is compounded of the root kel with yāṇai and it cannot be dissolved into konra yanai, kollukinya or kollum vänai. pretation of the latter seems to be unsound, since Tolkappiyanar in his sutra says that vistaitlokai shows time.1 The reasons adduced by him in support of his statement do not seem to be sound. He has done so, since perhaps he took the expressions like hol-yāṇai as a case of nityasamāsa like the word kumbhahara mentioned by Dharmakirti in Vol. 1, p. 181 of his Rupavatara. But it seems to me that it is against the views of Tolkappiyanār. Nannūlār agrees with Hampūraņar, while the author of the Jakkanavilakkum agrees with Cenāvaraiyar and repeats his arguments. (L. V. 338, Comm.)
- 4.232. As regards panpu-t-tokai, Cenavaraiyar thinks that the words like karuikutirai cannot be dissolved into kariyatü ükiya kutirai in the same way as in viņai-t-tokai perhaps for the same reason. This too is against the views of Tolkappiyanar since, in the satra, he says 'nnyatü itu ana' (Tol. Col. 416). Nannular seems to think that karumai+kutirai becomes karuñ-kutirai,² while Tolkappiyanar thinks that kariyatü+kutirai becomes sa. Nannular's view does not seem to be sound since the

^{1.} Vipaivin rokuti kälet t-iyalum, (Tol. Col. 415.)

Panpai vijakkum moli-tok kayavum
 Oru-poruțku irupeyar vantevum kuna-t-tokai. (Na. 365.)

expression 'harumai ākiya kulirai' cannot convey any sense since harumai and hulirai cannot be appositional, harumai denoting quality and hulirai denoting object. The author of the Ilakkana-vilakkam agrees with Cēnāvaraiyar (1. V. 339, Comm.).

4.233. IS 'NILAN KATANTĀŊ' WHICH MEANS 'HE CROSSED THE GROUND', A COMPOUND OR NOT? All commentators of Tolkāppiyam, except Cēṇāvaraiyar and his followers think that nilañ kaṭantōṇ, when it means "he crossed the ground," is not a compound, but a sentence consisting of two words nilam and kaṭantōṇ where nilam is the object of the verb kaṭantōṇ and it has its suffix dropped according to Tol. Col. 103. When it means "one who has crossed the ground," evidently it is a compound. But Cēṇāvaraiyar is very obstinate in considering it a compound. The reason he adduces in support of his opinion is that in Tol. E. 133, Tolkāppiyaṇār has stated that a noun which has its case-suffix dropped is combined with the following verb so as to form a compound. Hampūraṇar gives a different interpretation to the same. The lines under consideration are

Peyarum tolilum pirintorunku icaippa Vērrumai y-urupu nilaiperu valiyan Torram vēntā-t tokuti-k kannum...

The literal translation of these is as follows:—Noun and verb used separately or together, either with the case suffix of the noun expressed or dropped. Hampūraņar interprets these lines thus:—Peyarum toļilum vērrumai yurupu nilaiperu vaļiyum, tārram vēņtūt tokutik kaņņum pirinticaippa, and peyarum toļilum vērrumai yurupu nilai peru vaļiyum tārram venjāt tokutik kaņņum erunkicaippa, which may be translated thus:—When a noun with, or without, a case-suffix is followed by a verb and is treated as a separate word and when a noun with, or without, a case-

^{1.} Nīlaū-kaṭantān, kungattiruntān ena-p-peyarum viņaiyun tokkaņa oru-coņņtrmai-y-ila-v-ākoliņ tokai-y-enoppaṭā v-enpārum-uļar....vērrumai-y-wrupit roka-p-peyarum toļilum oruākicaittal āciriyar nērntār-ākoliņ, avai tokai-y-ēnavē paṭum. (Tol. Col. 420, Cēnā.)

suffix is followed by a verbal noun and is treated as a part of a compound of which the verbal noun forms the second part—According to his interpretation, nilattai-k katantān and nilah katantān are each two separate words when katantān is a finite verb, and nilattai-k-katantān and nilattai-k-katantān are COMPOUND words when katantān is a participial noun.

Consideration interprets the same sutra thus:—peyarum tolitum verrumai y-urupu uilai peru valiyum pirinticaippa, peyarum tolitum torram venta-t tokuti-k kannum orunkicaippa, which may be translated thus:—when a noun with a case-suffix is separate from the verb which it follows, and when without case-suffix, it is treated as a part of the compound—(i.e.) He takes 'pirintii' with the second line of the sutra and 'arunkii' with the third line unlike Hampuranar who takes both the second and third lines with both pirintii and orunkii. Besides, Cenavaraiyar seems to think that the word tokuti in the third line means compound, since the same word in the sutra 'Vinai-y-in rokuti kālat tiyalum' (Tol. Col. 415) has that meaning. But the author has not used that word in that sense alone in the whole of his work. For he has used also in the sense of number according to Cēṇā-varaiyar and collection according to Hampūranar in the sūtra,

Inauttena arinta cinai-mutar kilavikkit

Vinai-p-patu tokuti-y-in-ummai vēntum (Tol. Col. 33).

It is a wonder to me why Cēṇāvarāiyar says so in spite of the fact that he is a sound Sanskrit scholar. What is the use of taking nilah kaṭantāṇ, yāṛn kaṭantāṇ, ūrkaṭantāṇ, etc., to be compounds when one can very easily take them as separate words?

From the points mentioned above, it may be clear that the interpretation of *tokal* as ellipsis mentioned by Dr. Pope in page xvii of the Introduction in Pope's edition of Tirukkural is not sound.

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5. SYNTAX.

- 5. 1. INTRODUCTION: From the arrangement of the sections in Collatikāram, Tolkāppiyaņār seems to have recognised that the unit of speech is a sentence. In the first section, kilmviyākkam, he says in the first eleven sūtras that the ending of the predicate must agree in gender, number and person with that indicated by the subject, and in the succeeding sotras, he deals with the order of words in a sentence, the use of particular words in a context, etc. In the second section, the case-suffixes and their function are dealt with, since the former are necessarily found after nouns in a sentence. In the third section is mentioned the overlapping of case-functions and in the fourth, the vocative case. It is only at the beginning of the fifth section, payariyat, Tolkāppiyanār defines cot or word which forms a part of a sentence and classifies it primarily into two, noun and verb, and secondarily into four-noun, verb, itaiccol and wriccol. In the remaining portion of the fifth section, he deals with nouns; the sixth, seventh and eighth sections respectively deal with yerbs, itaiccol and uritcol and the ninth and last, with miscellaneous topics like compunds, etc.
- 5. 2. ORDER OF WORDS: The normal order of words in a Tamil sentence is this:-The subject begins the sentence and the predicate ends it. (e.g.) vol valantara magniphattana (The sword was stained after giving victory) (P. N. 4, 1); the predicate may be used at the beginning of the sentence when it is emphasised. (e.g.) kantanen karpinukkaniyai-k-hankalal (saw [with eyes the ornament of chastity) (Kampar, C. Tiruvati, 58.) As regards the cases, the sixth case must invariably precede the nounwhich it qualifies. (e.g.) ālai-vāy-k-karumpin tānum (the sweet boiled juice of the sugarcane at the mill), (Kampar. B. 469,) the second case generally precedes the verb, but the third and the fourth cases also intervene between them. (e.g.) talaiyai vananki (bowing the head) (Cilap. 490, 33); ifamulai baiyāl tiruki (twirling the left breast with hand) (Cilap. 421, 43); vanta nampiyai muntai . . nānmarai munikkuk kätti (having shown his brother to the sage learned

in the four vēdas) (Kampar, B. 233, 17). When certain things are enumerated first and their total number is indicated by an enumerative word, such a word should be followed by um. (e.g.) muracu-mulanku tāṇai māvaruū kūţi. (all the three having assembled with their armies beating drums) (Pattu. 61. 54). The past, present, and future, participle invariably precede the noun which they qualify. (e.g.) nuti-malnūkiya veņkēṭṭāṇ (with the white tusk whose end was blunted) (P. N. 4. 11). The nouns in apposition which denote the titles of persons generally precede the name of the person. (e.g.) Teyvappulavaṇ Tirnvalfuraṇ. It nouns and pronouns are used in the same sentence denoting the same person, the pronoun is generally used after the noun. (e.g.) Cāttaṇ avaṇ vantāṇ, but the order may be inverted in poetry. (e.g.) avaṇ . . . cēntaṇ pēr vālītī (having blessed Cēntaṇ) (Tol. Col. 32, Cēṇā.).

5. 3. NUMBER: Singular nouns with a collective sense take the singular verb .- (e.g.) raiyātn alakam (the world will not despise) (K. 117); plural forms are sometimes used as honorific singulars.—(e.g.) yām ēttnkam palavē (I praise in many ways) (P. N. 10, 13); plural forms of verbs are sometimes used along with the singular nouns and rice versa .- (e.g.) aran certimo aruļucyyōy (P. N. 145, 7), yāvē yām kāņkā (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 497. 22). Sometimes the plural forms of verbs are mixed with the singular forms. (e.g.) unkum entai nin hānku vanticin (P. N. Sometimes two or more singular nouns connected by the particle um take a singular verb after them. (e.g.) mātāvar nönpum majavär karpum kävalan käval ingu (the celebacy and the chastity of holy women is not under guard) (E. M. 252, 208 and 209). Ornrar is the common form to denote either one man or one woman. (e.g.) ornvarai-y-ornvar tolarniar (one followed another) (Kampar, C. Kińkarar, 25). In case when one is not able to ascertain whether the person standing before him is a male or a female, the plural verb should be used. (e.g.) ånmakan kolló pentötti kolló aztó tögynvár (is it man er weman that

Cirappi n-ākiya peyer-nilai-k kiļavikkum
 Iyar-peyar-k kiļavi murpaļa-k kiļavār. (Tol. Col. 41.)
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appears there). The plural interrogative pronoun yar is used after singular nouns if the former is used as a logical predicate. (e.g.) ivan yar enhausiyāyin (if you ask who this man is) (P. N. 13.1). Sometimes plural nouns are in apposition with singular nouns. (e.g.) ēval iļaiyar tāy vayiņu karippa (Tol. Col. 461, Cēņā.)

- 5. 4. TINAI: Sometimes antinai nouns are used as uyartinai nouns and vice versa out of affection (e.g.) on tantai vantan (with reference to a cait), an ayai vantatii (with reference to a son). Similarly astinai nouns are used as uyartinai and vice versa to denote superiority. (e.g.) centar-p-pacuikiliyar (C. C. 1036.), mannan nyirtte matar talai-y-utakam (P. N. 186. 2).
- 5. 5. CONCORD: The finite verb agrees with its subject in gender, number and person as is generally found in Sanskrit. If two or more subjects of different persons are used, the plural verb of the first person is used if the subjects are of the first person, and either of the second or third persons or both, as yanum niyum papam, yanum ananum papam or yanum, niyum ananum papam, and the plural verb of the second person is used if the subjects are of the second and third persons, as niyum ananum papar. In respect of these two points there is similarity between Sanskrit and Tamil. If the subject is made up of a nyartinai noun and an ananum kutiraiyum vantarkal (Ponnan and his horse came) (Colloq.).
- 5. 6. PRONOUNS: Sometimes the word ivan is used to denote the first person singular. (e.g.) künkivan katumpina-litumpai (P. N. 173.2). This is probably due to the desire of the speaker to address himself in the third person. The form ivan is used, but not avan, since he is the newest third person to himself.

Pan-mayak kurra v-aiya-k bilavi
Tan-ari parul-vayir panmai kural. (Tol. Col. 23.)

If young is abbreviated into you as your into yor, its
form would have been the same as the singular of the first personal pronoun you and hence you may have been used in all
genders and numbers to avoid confusion.

^{3.} Cf. M. V. G. p. 290, S. 3.

This is perhaps the reason why inki is used in the sense of equitattil in Jaffna. Similar usage is found in the Cilappatikāram. (e.g.) Parakati-y-ilakkum paņļu inku illai (Cilap. 395, 85).

The reflexive pronouns tan, tam and tankal are used in place of second person singular, tankal when the person spoken to is a very great man, tam when he is great, and tanwhen he is almost equal to the speaker in status. It is a peculiarity in colloquial speech that they are followed by a verb in the neuter singular. (c.g.) tānkaf ephōtu vantatū; tām eppōtu vantatū; tặn chhôtu vantatů. Tâm and tānhal are also followed by second person plurals of the form wantir and wantirkal respectively. Sometimes nam is used instead of the second person honorific singular, (e.g.) nammai orukāl kāţţivantāl (P. T. 92, 1), nerunal națantavară năm (Kampar. Āra. 238, 119). Such a usage is found in colloquial speech also. Similarly atu is also used in colloquial speech. (e.g.) alu enna collubigatii. Besides it may be interesting to note that the word invitattil which is the seventh case of invitam is used in the same sense. (e.g.) invitattil evveru niyaikkingatû (how do you think?). The form evan is used as a logical predicate after a neuter singular subject. (e.g.) iccorhu-pporul evant (what is the meaning of this word?)

5. 7. CASES AND CASE-SUFFIXES: The cases from the first to the eighth are generally used in Tamil as in Sanskrit conveying the same sense, i.e., the first case denoting the subject, the second the object, the third the instrument, object in association or the doer, the fourth the recipient, the fifth the limit, comparison and cause, the sixth the ownership, and the seventh the time and the place of action. But we have many cases where one case form is used for another, i. e., where functional syncretism plays its part.

Yāteva v-cnņu m-āyiru kiļavi-y-um Āriyā-p poruļ-vayir ceriya-t tovrum. (Tol. Col. 31.)

Following point may be noted here. Tolkappiyanar does not state in Tol. Col. 71 that the second case denotes the object, but says that it is used with verbs. Since he says in Tol. Col. 112 that the subject, object, instrument, etc., are necessary for an action

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The third, the fourth, the fifth, and the seventh, case are sometimes used in place of the second. (e.g.) vāṇāl nākki vāļum¹; ivaļķu-k-koļļum unaņi²; paliyin aācum³; aracarkaļ cārntāņ, köļļiņkaļ kuraittāņ, etc.⁴

The fourth and fifth cases are sometimes used in place of the third. (e.g.) avarku-c-ccyya-l-takum ikkāriyam⁵; vaņukattiņ āyināņ⁶, ampiņ āṭṭutum (Kampar. B. 25, 3). The sixth case is

to be produced and he directly mentions the meanings of all the cases other than the second in the sutras dealing with the other cases and the object is left out, we are made to infer that the second case denotes the object. The authors of the Nêminātam and the Nangūl also have not definitely stated it. (N. N. Col. 17 and Na. 296.) It is the outhor of the Ilakkanoviļakkam who has mentioned it. (I. V. 199.)

- Iranjan marunki nākka nākham-a-v
 V-iranjan marunki n-ētu-v-u m-ākum, (Tal. Col. 93.)
- Itana titu-v-iz reznak kilaviyam Atanai-k kollum porul-vayi n-āgum. (ibid. 110.)
- Acca k kilavik k-aintu m-iranjum Ecca m-ilavê porul-vayî y-aya. (ibid. 100.)
- 4. Karuma m-allā-c cērpen kiļavikkā

 Urimaiyu m-utaittē kaņņen vērzumai. (ibid. 84.)

 Ciņai-nīlai-k biļavik k-aiyun kaņ-ņ-um

 Viņai-nīlai y-okku m-eņmaņēr pulavar. (ibid. 85.)

 Kanzal celavu m-aņrumār viņaiyē. (ibid. 86.)

 Mutay-ciņai-k kiļavi-k k-atu-v-en vērzumai

 Mutay-haņ variņē ciņai-k-k-ai varumē, (ibid. 87.)

 Mutaŋ-mu n-ai-variz kaņ-ņ-en vērzumai

 Ciņai-mun varuta zeļļi tenpa. (ibid. 88.)

 Mutalun ciņaiyum paruļ-vēzu paṭāa

 Nuvalun kālai-c coy-kurip piņavē. (ibid. 89.)
- Itana titu-v-ir r-ennuñ kilaviyum Atanar ceyar-patar k-atta kilaviyum. (ibid, 110.)
- Münzanu m-aintanun tönga-k küziya Ākkam-oţu puņaruta v-ētu-k kilavi Nökkö r-anaiya v-enmanar pulavar. (ibid. 92.)

sometimes used for the fourth. (e.g.) nakaratu pali.1

The fourth case and the second case are sometimes used for the fifth. (e.g.) cāttaṛhu neṭiyaṇ²; niṇai-p-pāṇai niṅkum tiru (K. 519). The seventh case is sometimes used for the sixth. (e.g.) kāttiṇkaṇ yāṇai.

The third and fourth cases are sometimes used for the seventh (e.g.) Immarő ivvulakattápé (P. N. 74. 3); nálvarkku maruvil appinit věrrumai márrinál (Kampar, A. 216. 5).

Another point to be noted is that all nonns without any case-suffix may be used if they procede the verbs that they qualify; but only the suffix of the second case and the seventh case may be dropped if the noun fellows the verb. (e.g.) unknown perumant nathing valage (P.N. 136, 27); hantanen varunal ... kāṭē (P. N. 23, 22).

The order of cases and their meanings are quite similar to what is found in Pāṇini's grammar. The parallelism between mungākuvatē..., viņaimutal karuvi y-aṇai mutagratuvē (Tol. Col. 73) 'and' kartṛkaraṇayōs tṛtīyō (P. 2. 3. 18)' is quite striking.

- 5. 71. As regards the third case and its suffixes there are a few points to be considered:—(1) The suffix that is mentioned by Tolkappiyanar for the third case is of u; hut he mentions an in the sutra ku-ai an-eya vara m-iguti.... (Tol. Col. 108) but does not state there that 'an' is the suffix of the third case. From the literature of the Sangam period it is determined as the third case suffix, since it is used instead of of u. (e.g.) tanku kniya n-onku nataiya (P.N. 22.1). The later grammarians have taken it and its modified form al as third case suffixes.
 - (2) The suffix of t in Tamil, when it denoted association, was
 - Ku-t-toka varūti koţai-y-etir kiļavi
 A-p-poru ţ-āţaţ kurittu m-ākum, (Tol. Col. 99.)
 - Itana litu-v-ir rennuñ kilaviyum Pal-varai kilaviyum panpi n-ākkamum. (ibid. 110.)
 - Ārap marunkip vāļcci-k kiļamai-k-kū
 Ēļu m-āku m-nrai-nilat tāņa. (ibid. 98.)
 - Māngā kuvatē
 Oţu-v-eņu-p peyariya vērzumai-k kiļavi
 Vinai-mutal karuvi y-aņai-mutar zatuvē. (ibid, 73.)

used after the word denoting the more important object. (e. g. tümpuţai-t-taţakhai vāyoṭu tumintū (P. N. 19. 10); māṇṭa-v-aṇmaṇaivyoṭu viakhaļu nirampiṇar (P. N. 191. 3). Here it differs from Sanskrit where the third case suffix is used after the word denoting the less important. Cl. sahayuktē apradhānē (Pa. 2, 3, 19). Besides, the suffix āṇ is also used in Sangam works to denote association. But later on, i.e., before or after the time of Naṇṇutār, the suffix oṭu alone came to be restricted to denote association² and also it seems to have been used after the nonn denoting the less important. (e.g.) vanta nampṛṣait-tampi taṇṇoṭu . . . kāṭṭi (Kampar. B. 233, 17); kuļaṇoṭu natikaļ tan kuṛaikaļ āravē (Kampar. B. 164, 46).

72. In this context the following statement of Dr. Caldwell deserves to be considered. "Dravidian Grammarians have arranged the case system of their nouns in the Sanskrit order, and in doing so have done violence to the genius of their own grammar. The Dravidian ablative of motion and the locative are evidently one and the same case, though represented as different by grammarians, in deference to Sanskrit precedents; and the Dravidian social ablative, as some have called it or rather as it should be termed, the conjunctive case, though it takes an important position in the Dravidian Languages has been omitted in each dialect from the list of cases, or added on to the instrumental case, simply because Sanskrit knows nothing of it as separate from instrumental. The conjunctive or social stands in greater need of a place of its own in the list of cases in these languages than in Sanskrit, seeing that in these it has several case signs of its own, whilst in Sanskrit it has none.3

This statement of Dr. Caldwell, so far as Tamil is concerned, is based on two points:—(1) Mention of il as the suffix both of the fifth and the seventh cases by the author of the Nannül and the modern usage of ip before kap of the seventh case as in

^{1.} Orn-vinai y-olu-c-co l-uyar-pin valitte. (Tel. Col. 91.)

Māngā vatan-uru pal-ā n-ōtojā Karuzi karuttā utanikai vatan-paruļ. (Na. 297.)

C. D. G. 277 and 278.

grinkan and (2) Dr. Caldwell's mistaking the third case suffix of to denote only association. His statement would have been correct if the author of Nanaûl or more correctly his commentators had arranged the cases.

But the arrangement of the cases was done not by Nannular or his commentators, but by Tolkappiyanar and his Tolkåppiyanär does not at all give 'il' as predecessors. any case-suffix. He has stated that in is the fifth case suffix and that it denotes the limit or comparison and kan is the seventh case suffix denoting time and place of action, Besides, in his time and even in later times, oto was used not only to denote association, but also to denote instrument in the same way as the suffix all or ay. For instance, the sentence kotiyotu tuvakkuntān means he was punished with a ereeper and not ' he was punished along with a creeper'. Tolkāppivanār has first stated that the suffix of a denotes the door of the action, the instrument and then only that it denotes the association also. Besides an also was used to denote association, e.g., tünku-kaiyan önku nataiya. (P. N. 22-1.) Hence at the time of Tolkäppiyanär both otu and du were used to denote instrument and association. The point why ofn and dis were not treated as the suffixes of separate cases is fully discussed in Cépàvaraiyam, a commentary on Collatikāram of Tolkāppiyam under sūtra 74 of Collatikāram. Hence Dr. Caldwell's criticism on the arrangement of cases by Tamil grammarians cannot at all stand,

 73. The following parallelism may be seen in the use of cases between Tamil and Sanskrit:—

The third case is used to denote cause:

Tamil:

Sanskrit:

nalvinaiyāl avanai-p-pārlient! punyēna tam apašyam²
The fourth case is used instead of gerund in Tamil and instead of
the infinitive of purpose in Sanskril.

^{1.} Ingda ētā. (Tol. Col. 74.)

^{2.} Hētāu. (P. A. 2.3.23.)

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Tamil:

ыначийки-с-септан Гог пураc-centrate!

töttukku-p-pon³

Sanskrit:

bhðjandya yáti for bhöktum. $\eta \bar{a} t i t^2$

kundalāya svarnami

The fifth case is used to denote contrast:

Tauvil:

Samskritt.

ivan avanın çelvamıntaiyan - êşah tasmüt üdhyatarah⁵

There is a case of nominative absolute in Tattil with a nounin the nominative case followed by a gerund, e.g., unckantanar kotuppa . . . uluvai porikhum ārralai (P. N. 33, 6 to 9). Here ketuttal is the effect of his having been powerful. malai payya, kulam niramtatu. Here peytal is the cause of nigaital. Similarly, the form ceylena is used instead of ceya in the above cases.

Such nominative absolutes are absent in Sauskrit; and the genitive and locative absolutes found in Sanskrit are absent in Tamil.

The anthor of the Pirayōkavivēkam mentions that 'tulli vitāap pulaviyu!' in 'pullivitāap-pulaviyut tongumen gulla mutaikkum patai' is a case of locative absolute in P. V. p. 26. Since the form in Tamil has no similarity to that in Sanskrit, I do not agree with him. It may be taken only as a case of nominative absolute.

Cenāvaraiyar in his commentary under Tol. Col. 71 divides cevappatuporul or object into three classes, viz., iyarrappaturatu or that which is newly made, vērupatukkap-patuvatú or that which is transformed and eylappaturath or that which is obtained or reached. This is possibly the translation of the following Kārikā in Bhartrhari's Vākyapadiya:

Nivariyam ca vikūryam ca prūpyam ca trividham matam Tatrēpsilalamam karma . . .

(Vākyapadīya, 3rd Kāṇḍa, 45th Kārikā.)

1. Atasku utampatutal. (Tol. Col. 76.)

3. Atuváku kilovi, (Tol. Col. 76.)

Tumarthäcca bhava vacanat. (P. A. 2.3.15.)

Tādarthyē caturthī vācyā. (Vārtika.)

^{5.} Pañcaminibhaktë, (P. A. 2,3.42,);

- 5. 8. TENSES: The past tense in Tamil is used for the present or the future to denote hastel or speed e.g., itō vaniën meaning 'I am coming' or 'I shall come soon'. Sometimes the past is used for the present to denote certainty e.g. arīntēn for arikirēn (Ka. T. Vol. 2. 583. 7). Sometimes the present is used for the future as in Sanskrit² e.g., Paratanē tānka māmuṭi cūṭnkingān (Kampar, A. 216, 4.) and āgacchāmi for āgamiṣyāmi.¹ The future is used for the past and vice versa*, (e. g.) matar micai-y-tānān (K. 3. Comm.)—here ēkinān is used for ēkuvān; nilaiyal cerviten pa (Tol. Col. 68)—here en pa is used for enganar; celtēn for cāvēn (T. V. 3. 165).
- 5. 9. PARTICIPLES: 'Participles are of a two-fold nature in as much as they share the characteristics of both noun and verb.' In form they are adjectives in concord. They not only govern cases like the verb, but also indicate time and differences of voice. The purpose that is served by relative pronouns in Sanskrit is served by the participles in Tamil.—(e.g.) 'kuṭaṭṭai-c-ceyta kuya-vaṇ vantāṇ' corresponds to the Sanskrit sentence 'yaḥ ghaṭam akarāt saḥ āgaṭaḥ,' which means the potter who made the pot came. The use of participles past, present and future is generally similar to that of participles in Sanskrit, though, in form, they are declined in the latter and they are not declined in the former. The use of participles denoting cause as Harim paṣṇan mucyatē (cf. lakṣaṇahēṭnōḥ (P. A. 3.1.126.) is not found in Tamil. The indeclinable past participle is used instead. (e.g.) ariyai-p-pārttu viṭu peṛrāṇ.

 Vara-k kālattu viņai-c-car kiļavi Irappiņu nikalviņuā cirappa-t tonrum Iyarkaiyun teļivun kiļakkun kālai. (Tol. Col. 245.)

^{3.} Variamāna sāmīpyē vartamānovadvā. (P. A. 3.3.131.)

^{4.} Izappë y-etirvë y-ayiru kalamun Cirappa-1 tönzu mayanku-moli-k kilavi. (Tol. Col. 247.)

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The indeclinable past participles of the forms ceytû, ceyyû and ceypû are generally used to denote an action done by an agent previous to another action done by the same. Their use in Tamil is generally similar to the indeclinable participles in Sanskrit. The sûtras 'avarrul mutanilai mûnrum vinaimutan muțipina (Tol. Col. 230)' and 'ceyten eccat tiranta kūlam cytița nuțaitte vărăk kălam (Tol. Col. 239)' convey almost the same idea as 'samānakartykayōḥ pūrvakūlē (P. A. 3.4.21). But sometimes these indeclinable participles in Tamil are used as absolutes, when their subject denotes a part of the person denoted by the subject of the finite verb. (e.g.) kai irru avan vilutān. Very rarely are they used as gerunds. (e.g.) nāvāy ōṭṭi valitoļil ānṭa-v-uravōn maruka (P. N. 66.1.) Here ōṭṭi is used in the sense of 'for steering'.

The gerunds of the form coyyiyar, ceyyiya, ceyarku, ceytena and ceya convey the same sense as the infinitive of purpose in Sanskrit. But there is difference in their use. In Sanskrit the infinitive of purpose always takes for its subject, the subject of the finite verb which follows.\(^1\) But in Tamil they may take the same subject or not.\(^2\) In the latter case we have the absolute construction. (e.g.) malai poyya, kulam nirainlatu.

The form ceyin is used to denote condition. Such an infinitive form is not found in Sanskrit. In the place of ceyin Sanskrit has to use 'karōti cēt.'

Similarly, the form ceytanm is used in literature to denote contrast. It means 'though one does'. In its place Sanskrit generally uses an indeclinable participle followed by api as kytva api.

In Tamil a number of finite verbs are used without the connecting particle. (e.g.) välttinen paravutum (Pari. 70.83.); nir kantanen varuval (P.N. 23.17.); ni nalkinai vitumati (P. N. 136.24). In such cases, all the finite verbs except the last are

Somāna-karīrkēşu tumun, (P. A. 3.3.158.)

Enai y-eccom vinai-mutal-āņum
 Aņ-van tiyaiyum vinai-nilai y-aņum
 Tam-iyan marunkin mutiyu m-enpa. (Tol. Col. 232.)

taken to be indeclinable participles by the author of the Nannül and the later grammarians,1

5.10. PECULIAR INTERPRETATION OF CERTAIN CONSTRUCTIONS BY TAMIL GRAMMARIANS: 5.101. In the sentence 'Nampi pon periyan' which means Nampi is great on account of wealth, Cankaranamaccivayappulavar, a commentator on the Nannul says under the sutra 'wyartinai lotaruta . . .' (Na. 377) that the word Nampi is nyartinai eluvdy or subject and the word pen is actinai cluvey and the latter is peculiarly followed by the uyartinai predicate periyan.2 When one reads the sentence, it may clearly appear that something is predicated of Nampi and not pon; besides the predicative element is not confined to the word periyan alone. Hence under the general rules of grammar it must be taken that Nampi is the subject and the compound word pon periyan corresponding to Sanskrit dhanamahitah is the predicate or periyan is the predicate and pay is the enlargement of the predicate in the sense of poppell. If pop and periyon are taken to be two separate words, it may be easily said that pen is third case, with its third case suffix dropped according to the sutra Irutiyu m-itaiyu m-elldv-urupum—Neri-pat uporul-vayi nilavutal varaiyer (Tol. Col. 103) and the third case denotes cause as is sanctioned by the word êtû in Tol. Col. 74; or pon periyan may be taken to be a verb formed from a compound ponperumai. The objection that is raised by Cankaranamaccivayappulavar against the latter interpretation is that, in that case, it must have been porperiyan according to the rules of sandhi. Either this form may be brought under an exception, or the former interpretation may be accepted. It has a parallel in the sentence aval kannel kettai where the third case is used. Similarly nampi ponyal periyan has assumed the form of nampi pon periyan.

If we carefully read through the stitra 'nyartinai totarnta perul mutalārum ataņoju cārttin attiņai muţipina' (Na. 377) Cankaranamaccivāyappulavar seems to voice forth the opinion of

Vinoi-murre vinoi y-ecco m-akalum Kurippu-mur riv-ecco m-akalu m-ulave, (Na. 351.)

^{2.} Na. C., p. 206.

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Nannulär. One is at a loss to know why Nannulär should have chosen to suggest that explanation. There is, in my opinion, no sūtra in Tolkūppiyam conveying the same idea; but I have come into contact with Tamil Pandits who think that this sūtra is based on Tol. Col. 61. It may be considered here whether it is so or not.

5.1011. The sūtra referred to is this:—

Kaṇṇum töṭum mulaiyum piravum

Paṇmai cuṭṭiya ciṇainilai-k kiṭavi

Paṇmai kūrun kaṭappā ṭ-ilave

Tamviṇai-k k-iyalu m-aṭuṭṭalan kaṭaiyē. (Tol. Col. 61.)

This may be translated thus:—The words denoting the limbs as kan, tol, mulai, etc., which generally denote more than one (i. e.) two, need not denote two except when they are followed by verbs suited to them, i.e., newler plural verbs. The examples which are given by Hampuranar under this sutra are han natlal, tol natlal, and mulai natlal. He has not stated that the subject, in such cases, is knn, tol or mulai. But the later grammarians and the author of the Nannul seem to have mistaken kan, etc., to be in the nominative case and hence the subject of natlal, etc.

I would prefer to interpret the sutra as follows:—The words kan, tol, mulai, etc., which refer to objects forming natural pairs do not invariably denote the pair unless they are followed by a plural verb. Hence it is not absolutely necessary that a woman should have both her eyes beautiful to be described as aval kan nallal. Such a sentence would be appropriate even when one of the eyes was beautiful. To be more clear, I may take the example 'Kannaki mulai-y-ilāl', which I have often heard used by recognised Pandits. It is known to every Tamil scholar that Kannaki, the heroine of the Cilappatikāram cut off one of her breasts and threw it away at Madura. Hence 'Kannaki mulai-y-ilāl' does not mean that Kannaki is devoid of her breasts, but it means that Kannaki is devoid of one breast. Hence this sūtra does not deal with the form of words, but their meaning.

If such an interpretation is not given, I think that this sotra is not necessary here and hence it may be omitted; for, it is certain that Tolkäppiyanär would have taken only aval as the subject of natlal and hence the predicate natlal agrees with the subject in gender and number.

One may question what the construction of kan is, in 'aval kan natlal' according to this interpretation. As I said in the case of the form pon periyan, one may take kan as a separate word in third case with the case-suffix dropped, or may take kannallal as a compound acting the part of the predicate to aval.

- 5.102. There are two more types of sentences where my explanation of the construction happens to differ from that ordinarily found in commentaries.
- 5.1021. 'Cākāṭum aceu iṛum' (K. 475) represents one of these types. On this Kural, Parimēlaļakar writes that the verb iṛum which is suited to the word acci which denotes a part of the cart is used here as the predicate of the word cākāṭū (which denotes the whole). The sentence means the cart will have its axle broken.' Though it is the axle that breaks, the cart also may be said to break in its axle. Hence it seems to me that it is not absolutely necessary to take iṛum to be a ciṇai-viṇai or the verb suited to the ciṇai or part. Parimēlaļakar has said so perhaps with the idea that aceū is also a subject, as interpreted by Naṇnūlār. (Cf. pon periyaṇ supra.) It has already been said that it is against the ordinary ways of expressing one's idea. Hence, in this sentence, accipum may be taken as the predicate of cākāṭum or iṛum may be taken as the predicate and accū as the seventh case singular with the case-suffix dropped.
- 5.1022. 'Alattarkariyai arivum iramum' (P. N. 20. 516.) represents another type. The commentator on Purananuri says that the cipai, arivum and iramum have taken for their predicate alattarkariyai, the verb suited to the mutal or the person having arivu, iram, etc. It is evident that the word alattarkariyai is second person singular and means 'you cannot be measured', and the words arivu and iram are each neuter singular meaning knowledge and compassion respectively. Hence the sentence may be taken to mean 'you cannot be measured in your knowledge and compassion'. Since alattarkariyai is second person

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singular, the word ni may be taken as the subject that is understood and arivum and transcon may be taken as nouns in the seventh case with the case-suffixes dropped, since the dropping of the seventh case suffix in nouns which follow the predicates is allowed by the sutra

> Ai-y-un kan-n-u m-allā-p poruļ-vayin Mvy-y-urupā tokāa v-iruti y-āna. (Tol. Col. 105.)

and such examples are found in plenty in literature,—(e. g.) kanţanen varuval...kāṭē (P. N. 23.22.)—Here kāṭē means kāṭṭiŋ-kannē; tikaittanai pāluñ ceykai (Kampar. K. 247.78.)—here ceykai means ceykaiyinkan.

Hence I think that it is not necessary to formulate, as is done by the later grammarians, that the words which denote parts of a whole may take predicates after them which are suited to the whole and vice versa.

CONCLUSION.

It may be evident from what has been said that Tolkappiyanār clearly realised that Tamil was not related to Sanskrit either morphologically or genealogically and deftly exploited the ideas contained in the earlier grammatical literature in Sanskrit. particularly in those works which dealt with Vedic etymology, without doing the least violence to the genius of the Tamil language. On the other hand, the large influx of Sanskritic elements in Tamil since the time of Tolkappiyanar appears to have so far clouded the linguistic vision of the author of Viracoliyam that he was led to assume close family relationship between Tamil and Sanskrit. Further the author of Viracoliyam does not appear to have realised that Tolkäppiyanär's model was not Panini so much as the Prätisäkhyas, and the Nirukta. As a result of this important divergence in view-point, the Viracoliyam proceeded to violently dragoon Tamil language and grammar into the groove of Sanskrit-ia feature which, in no sense, is traceable in Tolkäppiyam. It must, however, be conceded, in fairness to Viracoliyam, that its author has brought within the scope of his grammar such changes in the Tamil language as had come about since the time of Tolkappiyanar,

Nannülär was not a victim to the linguistic deflection which marred the value of the Viracoliyam. While he adhered to the method of Tolkappiyanar in respect of his fidelity to the genius of the Tamil language, he proceeded to complete the supplementing process initiated in the Viracoliyam. A fateful periodicity appears to have characterised the line of Tamil Grammarians; for, the author of the Pirayokavivekam who came after Nannülär has lapsed with redoubled vigour into the Sanskritising groove of the Viracoliyam.

But, luckily, the vitality of Tamil outlived all these grammatical vicissitudes. It is indeed gratifying that some of the latest grammatians—Vaittiyanātatēcikar, the Rev. C.J. Beschi and Civañānamunivar—have happily switched back to the healthy out-look and ideal of Tolkāppiyam.



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